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THEOR

THE DOMINION
ENCYCLOPÆDIA
OF
UNIVERSAL HISTORY
AND
USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

COMPILED AND EDITED UNDER THE DIRECTION AND MANAGEMENT OF

CHARLES R. TUTTLE,

THEOR OF "HISTORY OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA," "HISTORY OF THE
COUNTRIES OF AMERICA," "HISTORY OF THE BORDER WARS OF
TWO CENTURIES," ETC., ETC.

ILLUSTRATED.

VOL. I.

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1877.

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PREFACE.

THE work here given to the public has been contemplated by the author for several years, and may be regarded as the result of much careful study as to the kind of literature at present most needed by the people of this Dominion. The facts that our country is new, and most of its inhabitants of moderate means, have been well considered; as also the other facts, that books of useful information prepared expressly for Dominion readers, are far too scarce, and that the reading public here is too largely supplied by United States publications. The present work is intended to overcome all of these difficulties and to supply this want.

Seeking to present a work altogether acceptable to his countrymen, the author has grouped together, in as small a space as could be made to harmonize with their proper treatment, such subjects as must be first sought after for the family library. In this labor he has constantly kept in view the great necessity of practical economy in the purchase of books. However, it must be admitted, and by no means to the glory of Canada, that too many of our people look upon books as a luxury rather than a necessity. But those who are not inclined to invest much of their means in literature, and those who have but limited means for such investments, will find their respective cases fully met in the publication of this work. It em-

braces all the subjects that one could expect to find represented in the most complete family library, and is presented to the public at the price of a single work.

The first half of the work embraces a condensed history of all nations; the second, a vast amount of useful information concerning all the arts, sciences and industries of civilization. The first has been compiled in a style and form suitable for general reading and study; the second has been arranged in like manner, but in a form so as to serve also the purposes of a general reference book.

This work was compiled while the author was engaged on his History of the Dominion of Canada, now (Feb., 1877,) in course of publication, and could not therefore receive as much of his personal attention as could be desired. Nevertheless, he sketched out the plan of the work, with all the divisions of subjects, and gave constant direction to the collection and condensation of the materials. In addition to this he has read every paragraph carefully, thoroughly revising and correcting the manuscript prepared by his assistants, striking out some paragraphs, enlarging or condensing others, and improving the phraseology. Having had the direction of the compilation from the beginning, and, after thus revising and correcting the work, he is prepared to vouch for its correctness and completeness, but will not undertake to be responsible for the use or abuse, by his assistants, of the language origins with the authors from whose works the contents of these pages have been gathered. Let it be repeated, the work is purely a compilation, representing not only a few months of our own industry, but many long years of the toil of more than five hundred authors, whose names are not mentioned here, and to whom our readers should feel themselves as much indebted for the rich treasures of knowledge contained in these volumes, as to us. We give ourselves credit only with having discerned a public want, and with having effectually, and perhaps acceptably,

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PREFACE.

supplied that want from the well-directed labors of others. Most of the authors to whom we are indebted are either English or American, but few, if any, are Canadian. Hence, it would seem eminently proper, since our copyright law contemplates such a course, that we should profit by the labors of English and foreign authors through home publishers.

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THE
DOMINION ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF
UNIVERSAL HISTORY AND USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE editor of this work, believing that an encyclopædia of universal history and useful knowledge in all the arts, sciences and industries of civilization is needed by the people of the Dominion of Canada, begs leave to present these two volumes, which, it is believed, will supply in some degree, the want in this respect. As a nation, if we may so call our Dominion, we have reached a period when our people should, more than at any time hitherto, encourage the circulation of useful and valuable books. Parents and heads of families are beginning to realize the great importance of placing entertaining and instructive books within the reach of the youth committed to their training, and in response to this duty the demand for useful books has greatly increased within the past few years. Many works published in the United States have found an extensive sale in the Dominion, although designed especially for American readers, and in this way, while the market has been fully supplied, the supply has been from foreign publications.

Our country is new, and our people, for the greater part, are not wealthy, hence they cannot purchase all the books they desire. The present work is intended, in a great degree, to meet this difficulty. The work has been

completed and placed in the market at a price certainly within the reach of almost every family in the Dominion; and as it covers, in a very condensed form, about three quarters of the entire field of literature, it comes to fill the office of a whole library. Its contents are compiled and condensed from over five hundred different volumes, which could not be obtained short of one thousand dollars, hence it gives the pith or substance of a very select library. The great objection to most books is that they impose too much reading for the amount of real information conveyed. This abuse in book-making has made it almost impossible for a person of ordinary means to obtain anything like a complete library. Especially is this the case in the Dominion, which has hitherto been supplied with books designed for a wealthier and older market. To those who recognize these truths the present work will afford some relief.

The present work is, for convenience, divided into two general departments, each of which constitutes one of the two volumes, viz.: **UNIVERSAL HISTORY** and **USEFUL KNOWLEDGE**. The general departments are subdivided as the circumstances demand. Each chapter is divided into paragraphs, numbered, and titled, so as to facilitate a study of the subjects treated.

The **UNIVERSAL HISTORY** has been somewhat arbitrarily divided into three classes, each containing the record of an important era in the History of the World. The first contains an historical account of the ancient world, embracing the period from the creation of man to the fall of the Western Roman Empire, A.D. 476. The second embraces a history of the middle ages, comprising the time from the Fall of the Western Roman Empire to the Discovery of America, inclusive. The third comprises a record of the modern period, from the Discovery of the New World to the present time.

The great historical events have been arranged logically

rather than chronologically, and the greatest prominence has been given to the annals of those nations of ancient and modern times which have acted a leading part on the stage of the world's history; and, with this view, Greece and Rome have been given proper places among the nations of antiquity, while Germany, France, England and America are exhibited as the leading actors in the modern world.

The **USEFUL KNOWLEDGE** department is divided into many subjects, embracing full information in all the arts, sciences, and industries known to civilization.

The author lays no claim to originality of construction. He has compiled the work from books already published, and is therefore indebted to other and abler writers for the contents of these pages. These authors are too numerous to receive personal credit here. Let it suffice to say that the editor claims nothing for himself except the labor of presenting so much useful information in such an acceptable form.

One of the most attractive features of the **USEFUL KNOWLEDGE** presented here is an analysis of the civil governments of Great Britain, the Dominion, and the United States. That of the Dominion includes a vast amount of quite indispensable knowledge of the administration of the various departments of the civil government of the Dominion.

CHAPTER I.

THE EARLIEST AGES.

1. In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth. Subsequently—many centuries—He separated the land from the water, and created the beasts of the field, the fowls of the air, and the fish of the sea. He clothed the earth with verdure and vegetation, and finally created man in his own image,

Antediluvian
history.

endowing him with the gifts of reason and speech, and commissioning him to be the ruler of the world. The first pair, Adam and Eve, were placed in the beautiful garden called Eden, on the river Euphrates, in Mesopotamia, where they remained until, contrary to the commands of the Creator, they ate of the forbidden fruit and thus lost their purity and childlike innocence. Their eldest son, Cain, killed his brother Abel, and became a "fugitive and vagabond in the earth." In the course of time the descendants of Adam and Eve became very numerous; but all we know of the Antediluvians, or the people who lived before the deluge, is contained in the first six chapters of the Book of Genesis.

2. More than a century after the deluge the descendants of Noah became very numerous, and inhabited a region watered by the Euphrates, and known as the Land of Shinar." In this land they became prosperous, and undertook the building of a great city and tower called Babel, whose top they boasted should "reach to heaven." But after the tower had been built to a considerable height the Lord suddenly confounded the language of the presumptuous builders, whereupon they abandoned their foolish project and scattered themselves over the face of the earth, dividing themselves into many tribes and nations, each having a language peculiar to itself. This event is called the "confusion of tongues."

3. Noah, in the course of many years after the deluge is supposed to have travelled eastward and founded China.

His three sons were Ham, Shem, and Japheth. Ham is thought to have journeyed to Africa, which became peopled with his descendants; while Shem remained in Asia, where his descendants continued for many years to inhabit the Land of Shinar; and Japheth is believed to have peopled Asia Minor and northern Asia, and thence his descendants spread over Europe.

Noah and his descendants.

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CHAPTER II.

CHINA.

1. CHINA is undoubtedly the oldest nation on the earth. Its authentic history runs back over a period of more than four thousand years, and is believed to have been founded by Noah soon after the dispersion of mankind at the Tower of Babel. The Chinese, in early times, made rapid progress in civilization, but when they reached a certain period they came to a standstill, and have up to this present time remained in nearly the same condition. The ancient Chinese knew nothing of Egypt, Greece, Rome, or the great nations of western Asia.

Antiquity
and early
civilization
of China.

2. The records of China are very scarce until the time of Confucius, who lived about five hundred years before Christ, and who was the most famous character that China has ever produced. His virtues were as great as his talents and learning.

Confucius.

With a view to reforming his countrymen he travelled about the country lecturing to them and instructing them on the value of virtue and morality, and in a short time he had numerous disciples and converts who followed his precepts. His great works on moral philosophy, which have been held in great reverence by the Chinese to the present day, teach the people to be virtuous and orderly, and to do unto others as they would that others should do unto them. They also define the duties of the Emperor to his people, and also the duties of the people to their Emperor.

3. About three hundred years after the time of Confucius, or about two centuries before Christ, a great warrior called Chi-hoang-ti became Emperor of China, who, for the purpose of putting a stop to the inroads of the Tartars into the Chinese territories, caused a great wall, fifteen hundred miles in length,

Building of
the great
wall of
China.

to be erected on the northern frontiers of the dominions, which has now crumbled into decay. After the great wall had been completed, Chi-huang desired to be regarded by future generations as the founder of the great Chinese monarchy, and for this purpose he ordered all historical and other writings to be destroyed, so that nothing might thereafter be known of his nation previous to his own gigantic operations. Some learned men were punished with death for concealing some valuable books. Some of the works of Confucius and other eminent authors were, however, concealed, and after the death of the vain-glorious Emperor they were restored to the public. From the time of this Emperor to the present, many dynasties have occupied the throne of China.

CHAPTER III.

INDIA.

1. INDIA, or Hindoostan, is one of the most ancient seats of civilisation. Unlike China it was not united into a single monarchy, but was divided into petty states, of which very little is known. The period of the settlement of the Hindoos in India is nowhere ascertained with certainty. That portion of India north of the Vindya mountains was called Hindoostan, while that part of the country south of those mountains was named Deccan.

2. History informs us that the first form of government that existed in India, was that of a powerful priesthood, and the first code of laws was compiled by priests or Brahmins, who were celebrated for their learning, and who were greatly revered by all classes of Hindoos. Their laws were founded on the sacred writings.

*Antiquity of
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3. This Brahminical code divided the Hindoos, or Indians, into four distinct classes or castes. The members of each caste were not allowed to inter-marry or associate with those of another caste, and this part of the code has been rigidly observed up to the present day. These castes may be described as follows: The first was that of the priests or Brahmins, who possessed the chief power in both political and religious affairs, and who were held in greater respect and veneration than the princes. The second was the warrior caste, to which the princes belonged. The third caste consisted of the tillers of the soil, merchants, tradesmen and mechanics. The fourth caste was that of the servants and laborers. Every man was obliged to follow the occupation of his father, and it was considered worse than death to violate any of the rules of caste.

4. The Hindoos worshipped one supreme deity, known as Brahma, whom they regarded as creator. The two gods, Siva, the Preserver, and Vishnu, the Destroyer, were worshipped as forms or attributes of the chief deity. They also worshipped the sun, moon and stars. The priests or Brahmins taught the doctrine of metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls. The Brahminical religion was reformed by Buddha, who appeared in India about five centuries before Christ, Buddha labored earnestly to lessen the power of the priesthood and to destroy the distinctions of caste.

5. The Hindoos made great advancement in literature and art, and many of their works are now about 3,000 years old. They are chiefly written in the sacred and now obsolete Sanscrit language. The ruins of ancient temples bear witness to their artistic achievements. The great abundance of natural and artificial productions of India has ever kept that country the grand centre and emporium of the maritime and caravan trade, and has also made it a constant prey to foreign invasion and conquest.

CHAPTER IV.

ASSYRIA AND BABYLONIA.

1. Among the most ancient, as well as the most powerful nations of the ancient world, were Assyria and Babylon or Chaldea. Ashur, one of the sons of Shem, is regarded by many as the founder of the Assyrian empire, and also of its capital, the famed city of Nineveh. This great and magnificent city, which is supposed to have been situated on the east bank of the river Tigris, was surrounded by a wall 100 feet high, flanked with 1,500 towers, each 200 feet high. Nineveh is believed to have had, at one time, a population of about 800,000 souls.

2. That great city of Babylon which extended both sides of the river Euphrates, was the capital of the Babylonian empire, and it far surpassed Nineveh in size, power, and magnificence. The walls of Babylon were 350 feet high and 87 feet thick, flanked with high towers, and pierced with 100 gates of brass. Babylon was founded by Nimrod; "the mighty hunter before the Lord," a grandson of Ham. There are some who also regard Nimrod as the founder of Nineveh. After his death Nimrod was deified for his great actions, and worshipped as "Belus," or "Baal."

3. Many regard Ninus as the son and successor of Nimrod, Assyria and Babylonia forming one great empire; while others regard Ninus as an Assyrian king, who conquered Chaldea, a monarchy established very many years before, and united it with Assyria more than four centuries after the time of Nimrod. The latter is probably the correct theory.

4. Queen Semiramis was the wife and successor of Ninus. She greatly extended the Assyrian empire by conquest, carrying her victorious arms as far as the borders of India on the east, and to the deserts of Central Africa on the west. This

Reign of
Ninus.

Conquests of
Queen Semi-
ramis.

famous queen adorned Babylon with magnificent works, such as the hanging gardens, and she devoted some attention to the internal improvement of her extensive dominions.

5. Under the weak rulers who succeeded this energetic queen the Assyrian empire rapidly declined, and in the year 888, B. C., the governor of the Medes rebelled against the Assyrian king, Sardanapalus. Being besieged in Nineveh by his rebellious subject, and unable to defend his capital with success, Sardanapalus set fire to his palace and perished with it in the flames. Thus fell the first Assyrian empire, (B. C. 888).

Decline and Fall of the first Assyrian Empire, 888 B. C.

6. Assyria again became a powerful and extensive empire, about a century after the fall of the first Assyrian empire. Its rise was characterized by the acts of such warlike kings as Shalmanezar and Sennacherib, who are celebrated for their wars against the Israelites. The second Assyrian empire, like the first, was of short duration. Its overthrow took place in the year 606, B. C., when the united armies of the Medes and the Chaldeans took and destroyed the great city of Nineveh.

The second Assyrian Empire—its fall, 606 B. C.

7. The Babylonian empire was erected on the ruins of the Assyrian monarchy. It acquired great notoriety under the warlike Nebuchadnezzar, who conquered Jerusalem and carried the Jews into the seventy years' Babylonian captivity, and who also subjected the Phœnician kingdom of Tyre to the Babylonian dominion.

Rise of the Babylonian Empire.

8. The Babylonian Empire was overturned by the warlike conqueror Cyrus the Great, King of Persia, who, in the year 538, B. C., took Babylon and caused the last King, Belshazzar, who was at the time feasting with his nobles, to be put to death. The Babylonians were thereafter subjected to the sway of the Persians, B. C. 538.

Conquest of Babylon by Cyrus the Great.

CHAPTER V.

EGYPT.

1. THE ruins and monuments of ancient civilization in Egypt render the study of the early history of that country **Divisions of the most interesting of any country on the globe.** The territory of the country is kept **Ancient Egypt—Misraim or Menes** fertile by the annual inundations of the Nile; caused by the heavy rains in the highlands of Abyssinia. Egypt was anciently divided into three grand divisions, viz.: Upper Egypt, Middle Egypt, and Lower Egypt. Misraim, or Menes, a son of Ham, is regarded by many as the founder of the ancient Egyptian nation, and to have been its first king, while others hold that Menes and Misraim were different characters, and that the former flourished about two centuries after the time of the latter.

2. The capital of Middle Egypt, or Heptanomis, was Memphis, the city of the Pharaohs. This city was founded by the first Egyptian King, Menes. It was **The great city of Memphis.** located on the west bank of the Nile, in the region containing the most splendid of the Pyramids, which extend for seventy miles on the west side of the Nile. Among the ruins of Memphis are those of the Labyrinth, a building consisting of a number of intricate passages communicating with each other.

3. The capital of Upper Egypt or the Thebais, was the magnificent city Thebes, which was also founded under the direction of Menes. Some writers, however, claim this city to have been founded many centuries after the time of that king.

The city of Thebes. Thebes, we are told, extended over twenty-three miles, and had one hundred gates. Its immense size and magnificent splendor are attested by the ruins of temples, palaces, colossal statues, obelisks, sphinxes, the tombs of kings hewn in solid rock, and the subterranean catacombs.

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The ruins of Thebes extend for seven miles along both banks of the Nile.

4. The ancient Egyptians were a dark race, and were divided into seven distinct castes. The most respected of these classes were the priests and the warriors; next to these came the tillers of the soil, merchants, tradesmen, and sailors, while the shepherds, who composed the lowest class, were greatly despised. The Egyptian religion was a horrible superstition, the lower classes of the people worshipping various kinds of animals and idols. The Egyptians manifested much skill in the practice of the useful arts. They were successful in the weaving of cotton and linen cloth, and working in copper and brass. They also excelled in agriculture. They conducted an extensive commerce with other countries in gold, ebony, ivory, skins, and slaves from Ethiopia, incense from Arabia, and spices from India. They had attained no skill in the art of ship-building, and their trade was carried on chiefly by Greek and Persian merchants. The Egyptians also made a great degree of progress in the fine arts, such as music, painting, sculpture, and architecture. The ruins of magnificent columns and grand edifices fully testify to the degree of skill attained by this people in architecture.

5. The most renowned king of Egypt was Sesostris, who made extensive conquests in Asia and Africa. In the countries which he subdued, Sesostris caused monuments to be erected bearing the inscription, "Sesostris, King of Kings, and Lord of Lords, has conquered this territory by the power of his arms." It is not known with certainty at what period this great king lived.

6. The more famous kings subsequent to Sesostris were Moeris and Cheops. Moeris caused an immense lake to be constructed to regulate the inundations of the Nile. Cheops is noted as the builder of

**Egyptian
castes, religion,
commerce, arts,
etc.**

**Conquests
of King
Sesostris.**

**Moeris and
Cheops.**

the largest of the pyramids, which covers eleven acres of ground and is 480 feet high, and on which 100,000 men are said to have been employed for forty years.

7. The migration to Ethiopia constitutes an important event in the history of Egypt. Psammeticus, who reigned ~~Psammeticus~~ over Egypt about seven centuries before Christ ~~and the migration to Ethiopia.~~ invited Greek soldiers and settlers into his kingdom for the purpose of weakening the power of the priesthood and strengthening the authority of the monarch, in consequence of which measure 240,000 Egyptians left their country and settled in Ethiopia, now Nubia.

8. Necho, who was the king of Egypt about 600 years before Christ, is noted as the founder of the Egyptian ~~Necho and Psammenitus~~ naval and maritime power. The last of the ~~—conquest by the Persians.~~ Pharaohs, or native kings of Egypt, was Psammenitus, who was defeated in the bloody battle of Pelusium by the victorious Cambyses, king of Persia, who treated the Egyptians with great cruelty and put their unfortunate monarch to a violent death. (B. C. 525.) The battle of Pelusium was the death-blow to Egyptian independence; and the land of the Pharaohs became a province of the great Persian Empire, and so remained until it was subdued by the famous Macedonian conqueror, Alexander the Great. Since the loss of its ancient independence, Egypt has been successively subject to the sway of the Persians, the Macedonians, the Romans, the Saracens, the Mamelukes, and the Turks, the last of whom still hold the country tributary.

CHAPTER VI.

PHENICIA.

1. PHENICIA was the name applied to a narrow strip ~~Position and character of the Phenician territory.~~ of territory bordered on the east by the mountains of Lebanon, and on the west by the Mediterranean sea. The surface of the country

was sandy and hilly, and not adapted to agriculture; but the coasts abounded with good harbors, and the cedars of Lebanon supplied material in great abundance for ship-building. The Phœnicians therefore devoted their whole attention to manufactures and commerce; and at a very early period they became the greatest manufacturing, commercial, and maritime people of antiquity.

2. These people were not united under any form of government, but each Phœnician city, with the territory adjacent to it, constituted a small independent state with an hereditary sovereign at its head, the political power being shared with the priests and the nobles. The Phœnician worship of Moloch was attended with horrible human sacrifices, and that of Baal with disgraceful ceremonies. Phœnician colonies were established on the Mediterranean islands of Cyprus, Crete, Sicily, and Sardinia, on the southern shores of Spain and the northern shores of Africa. The most important of the Phœnician colonies were Gades, now Cadiz, in Southern Spain, the oldest city in Europe; and Carthage, in Northern Africa, a commercial city which was founded in the year 880, B. C., by the Tyrians, under the direction of Queen Dido.

3. The Phœnicians made some discoveries of great value to civilization, such as glass, the art of dyeing purple, and writing by means of letters. They were noted for their great skill in casting metals, weaving and architecture, and their manufactures of glass and linen, archets of gold, silver, ivory, and bronze, perfumes and purple dye were source of great national wealth. The vessels of this enterprising people navigated the Mediterranean, passed beyond the pillars of Hercules, and traded with the people on the shores of the Baltic sea. The Phœnicians also had commercial relations with the Arabs and the Hindoos, and it is written that under the bold direction of

Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, a Phœnician fleet, in a voyage of three years, doubled the Cape of Good Hope.

4. The most important cities of the Phœnicians were Tyre and Sidon. These two kingdoms for a long time

Tyre and Sidon, decline and fall of the Phœnician States.

defended themselves against the attempts of other nations to subdue them, but about eight hundred years before Christ, Shalman-azar, king of Assyria, conquered Sidon, and Tyre, also, after a long siege, and compelled the Phœnicians to pay tribute. In the year 587, B. C., the celebrated Babylonian king, Nebuchadnezzar, besieged and took Tyre, and subdued Phœnicia, and in the year 588, B. C., when Cyrus the great, king of Persia, extended his sway over Western Asia, both Tyre and Sidon fell into his power and Phœnicia became a Persian province. About the year 350, B. C., Sidon, at the head of a rebellion of the Phœnician states, attempted to throw off the Persian yoke, and when in consequence of this event the king of Persia ordered the most prominent Sidonians to be put to death, they set fire to their city and perished in the flames. Sidon was afterwards rebuilt. In the year 332, B. C., Tyre was subdued by Alexander the Great. With the fall of Tyre and the founding of the great commercial city of Alexandria in Egypt, Phœnician commerce and maritime glory passed away forever.

CHAPTER VII.

THE HEBREWS OR ISRAELITES.

1. ABRAHAM, the founder of the Hebrew nation, was a Chaldean Shepherd, who remained faithful to the Lord, while nearly the whole of mankind were sunk in idolatry. At the command of Jehovah, Abraham left his native country on the Euphrates, and taking with him his herds, settled with his servants and with his son-in-law, Lot, in the "Prom-

Abraham, Isaac, Jacob.

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ised land" of Canaan (afterwards called Palestine), where they continued their pastoral life, and where they received from the native inhabitants the name "Hebrews," meaning, "strangers from the other side." Isaac, the son of Abraham and Sarah, continued the chosen race, while Ishmael, Abraham's son with Hagar, became the progenitor of the Arabs. Isaac took for his wife Rebecca, with whom he had two sons, Esau and Jacob. Jacob, the younger son of Isaac, persuaded his brother Esau to sell his birthright for a mess of pottage. Jacob also obtained a blessing which his father had intended to bestow on Esau, and was declared the chief of the Hebrew race. Jacob had twelve sons, the descendants of each of which formed a distinct tribe among the Israelites, as the Hebrews were afterwards called, from Jacob's surname, Israel.

2. As Jacob bestowed his chief favor on Joseph, his son with Rachael, his other sons, moved with envy, sold their brother as a bond-slave to some merchants who took him to Egypt. Joseph The Hebrews in Egypt. remained faithful to God and was finally rewarded for his integrity. He at length obtained the favor of Pharaoh, as the king of Egypt was called, was made ruler over Egypt, and for his instrumentality in saving the land from famine, he was permitted by Pharaoh to invite his father and his brethren into Egypt. Jacob and his family then settled in the "Land of Goshen," as that part of Egypt on the east side of the Lower Nile was called.

3. After the death of Joseph, other Egyptian kings "who knew not Joseph," treated the Children of Israel with cruelty and oppression, and held them in bondage for two centuries. At length the king of Egypt gave orders that all the Hebrew male children should be thrown into the Nile the instant that they were born; but one of them was saved by the

The Israelites oppressed.
Moses.

mercy of the king's daughter, who found the child in an ark of bulrushes by the side of the river, and who named him Moses, because she drew him out of the water, and brought him up as her own son. At the age of forty years, Moses was obliged to flee for his life to the deserts of Arabia, for slaying an Egyptian whom he had seen ill-treating a Hebrew.

4. At length Moses became filled with a purpose of delivering his people from Egyptian bondage. But

The Ten Plagues. Deliverance of the Israelites. Pharaoh did not agree to permit the Israelites to depart from Egypt until struck with fear and terror after the Ten Plagues had been inflicted upon the land. After the Hebrews, led by Moses and his brother Aaron, had left the shores of Egypt, Pharaoh endeavored to bring them back by force; but the pursuing hosts of the Egyptian king were destroyed in the Red Sea.

5. For forty years the discontented Israelites, led by Moses and Aaron, wandered in the wilderness, in the northwestern part of Arabia. During this time the Ten Commandments were delivered to Moses on Mount Sinai. These and other laws were preserved in the Ark of the Covenant.

The Wander- ing in the Wilderness. The Ten Command- ments. According to the government arranged by Moses, God was king, and in his name the Elders of the tribes conducted the affairs of the nation. Religious matters were under the conduct of the High Priest and the Levites. The sacrifices and feasts of the Passover, Pentecost and the Tabernacles, constituted the bond ties between the Lord and his chosen people. Instead of the nomadic life, Moses determined upon agriculture as the chief occupation of the Hebrews.

6. Moses did not live to lead his people into the Promised Land. After appointing Joshua his successor, and gazing upon the fertile country to which he was travelling, from Mount Nebo, he

Death of Moses. Joshua and the Promised Land.

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passed away, no man witnessing his death. The children of Israel were faithful all the days of Joshua, under whose leadership they reached Canaan, or Palestine, where, after subduing the Amorites and other tribes, a distribution by lot took place by which the conquered territory was divided among the Twelve Tribes of the Hebrew nation.

7. During the period from the death of Joshua to the accession of Saul, the first King of Israel, the Hebrew nation was ruled by Judges. During this period the children of Israel often plunged into idolatry, for which they were as often punished by being delivered into the power of their enemies; but when they, sick of their sins, returned to God in repentance, they were delivered from their enemies by heroic leaders whom God raised up for the purpose. Among these deliverers, the reader will recognize the names of Othniel, Ehud, Deborah and Barak, Gideon, Jephthah, Sampson, Eli and Samuel.

The Rule of the Judges. — Idolatry.

8. On the death of Eli, Samuel judged Israel. He ruled with wisdom and justice, but the tyranny of his sons, with whom he shared his power, caused the Hebrew people to demand a king, who should reign over them like the kings of other nations. After vainly endeavoring to dissuade the people from their desire for kingly rule, the good Samuel anointed Saul, of the tribe of Benjamin, king over Israel. (B. C. 1095.)

Saul anointed King.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE HEBREWS, OR ISRAELITES—(*Continued.*).

1. NOT long after Saul was anointed king, he defeated the Amorites with great slaughter. Afterwards, while engaged in a war with the Philistines, Saul took upon himself a duty which belonged to the High Priest alone—that of offering the solemn sacrifice. The Divine displeasure at this action was revealed

Divine Displeasure with Saul.

to Saul by the prophet Samuel; and the people of Israel became disheartened, and the army of Saul was reduced to 600 men; but the army of the Philistines was at length overthrown by Saul's son, Jonathan.

2. After Jonathan's victory over the Philistines, Saul conducted successful wars against other nations, and made

**David
anointed
King.**

a prisoner of Agag, King of the Amalekites, and, contrary to the Divine command, spared the life of his captive. Because of Saul's disobedience, the Lord resolved to transfer the royal power to another family, and the shepherd boy, David, of the tribe of Judah, was secretly anointed King by Samuel. (B. C. 1055.)

3. Soon a war broke out between the Israelites and the Philistines, in which David slew the Giant Goliath of

**David slays
Goliath—
Saul's Death.**

Gath, the champion of the Philistines. Moved by jealousy and resentment, Saul made several attempts to take the life of David; and, to seek refuge from the anger of Saul, David was obliged to live much of his time in exile in a Philistine city and in the dens and caves of the mountains of Palestine. At length the Philistines invaded the Hebrew territories, and the Israelites were defeated and several of Saul's sons were slain in battle on Mount Gilboa; and, to avoid falling into the hands of the Philistines, Saul killed himself by falling on his own sword.

4. Even after Saul's death David did not obtain undisputed possession of the throne of Israel, for some of the

**War between
the Houses
of David and
Saul.**

Hebrew tribes adhered to Ishbosheth, a son of Saul, and for a long time the Hebrew nation was rent by a civil war between the Houses of David and Saul, until at length Ishbosheth was slain by his own guards, whereupon David was acknowledged at Hebron as king by all the tribes of Israel.

5. When the civil war had ended and David was acknowledged king by all the tribes, he extended his

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kingdom in every direction by conquests. He conquered the Syrian city of Damascus and subdued the Philistines. He captured Jebus, or Jerusalem, the strong city of the Jebusites on Mount Zion, and made it the capital of his kingdom. After this he waged successful wars with many of the surrounding nations, which he compelled to pay tribute. During the siege of Rabbah, the Ammonite capital, he took to himself the wife of Uriah, caused her husband to be put to death, and by so doing offended the Lord. David was a great poet, and a successful warrior. In the latter part of his reign, his son Absalom rebelled against his father, and was put to death by Joab, David's general. Two others of David's sons, Amnon and Adonijah, also met violent deaths. David died after a glorious reign of forty years, and was succeeded by his son Solomon, B. C., 1015.

David's
Reign.

6. Solomon ruled over a powerful kingdom, and his alliance was sought by many of the most powerful princes. His fame spread into distant lands, and the Queen of Sheba, who had heard of his wisdom, came to visit him from a far country. Solomon and Hiram, the king of Tyre, were close friends.

Solomon's
Fame.

7. Solomon was engaged for seven and a half years in building a temple at Jerusalem. He gave great encouragement to commerce and received much wealth from the commercial operations of his country. His vessels sailed to Ophir, a rich country in southern Asia; and by means of caravans a trade was carried on with the people of central Asia.

Building of
the Temple:
Commerce.

8. Solomon married wives out of foreign nations, permitted them the exercise of their idolatrous worship, and even became an idolator himself. Enemies then rose up against him on every side. The oppressive taxes which were necessary to support the magnificence and extravagance of his court, produced a rebellion headed by Jeroboam. The rebellion

Solomon's
Idolatry—
Jeroboam's
rebellion.

was, however, suppressed, and the kingdom was preserved in union till the succeeding reign.

9. On the death of Solomon, his son Rehoboam succeeded to the throne of the Hebrew kingdom, and **Accession of Rehoboam—** now in accordance with the prophesy of **Rehoboam—** Abijah, ten of the twelve tribes revolted and **Revolt of the Ten Tribes.** chose Jeroboam, of the tribe of Ephraim, as their king, thus forming the kingdom of Israel, the capitals of which were the cities of Shechem and Samaria. The two tribes of Judah and Benjamin, which remained faithful to Rehoboam, constituted the kingdom of Judah, of which Jerusalem was the seat of government. This rupture in the Hebrew kingdom took place 975 years before Christ, and is known in sacred history as "The Revolt of the Ten Tribes."

10. The wicked Jeroboam, the first king of Israel, introduced the worship of idols into his kingdom. All his **Idolatry of Jeroboam and his successors—** successors were sinful and idolatrous, and brought upon their people in consequence the heavy punishments of God. The prophets **Assyrian captivity.** Elijah, Elisha, Hosea, Amos, and Jonah vainly warned them of the consequences of their idolatry. At length, Shalmanazar, king of Assyria, invaded the kingdom of Israel, took Samaria, its capital, after a siege of three years, and carried Hoshea, the last king of Israel, and the greater portions of his subjects, captive to Assyria. (B. C. 721.) With the "Assyrian Captivity," the history of the Ten Tribes ends. The kingdom of Judah lasted 180 years longer than that of Israel.

11. After the revolt of the Ten Tribes, Rehoboam, who reigned at Jerusalem as King of Judah, and his subjects, **Idolatry of Rehoboam—** abandoned the worship of Jehovah, and fell **Capture of Jerusalem.** into idolatry, for which sin they suffered a heavy punishment by an invasion of their country by Shishak, King of Egypt, who took Jerusalem and carried away the treasures of the Temple and the palace.

12. At length, after the reign of many wicked kings, the pious Hezekiah was King of Judah. Sennacherib, King of Assyria, the son of Shalmanazar, resolved to subdue the kingdom of Judah, because Hezekiah, to escape paying tribute to the Assyrian King, had entered into an alliance with the King of Egypt, with whom the Assyrian monarch was then at war. Sennacherib led a mighty army against Jerusalem and laid siege to the city, but the Assyrian host was almost entirely destroyed in a single night by the miraculous interposition of the Lord, and Sennacherib fled from the land in dismay.

Reign of
Hezekiah.
Destruction
of the Assyrians.

13. Again the worship of Jehovah was cast aside, and the people of Judah corrupted with idolatry, when, as was always the case when they forsook the Lord, they were conquered by their enemies. At one time, Pharaoh Necho, King of Egypt, invaded the kingdom of Judah, and carried the wicked king, Jehoahaz, captive to Egypt, where he died.

Idolatry of
Judah—Sec-
ond Capture
of Jerusalem.

14. At length the famous Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon, invaded the kingdom of Judah, took Jerusalem, plundered the Temple, carried the king, Jehoniah, and many of his subjects into his own dominions, and oppressed those that remained.

The Babylo-
nian Captiv-
ity.

Among the captives was the prophet Daniel. Zedekiah, the last king of Judah, resolved to liberate his people from the Babylonian yoke, whereupon Nebuchadnezzar led a mighty army against Jerusalem, which he finally carried by storm at midnight, after a siege of eighteen months, during which the inhabitants of the city suffered all the horrors of famine. Many of the wretched inhabitants were slaughtered by the victorious Babylonians. The city and the Temple of Jerusalem were burned to the ground. The sons of Zedekiah were killed before their father's eyes; and after Zedekiah had been deprived of his eyes, he and the greater portion of his subjects were

carried into the seventy years' Babylonian captivity, B. C. 588.

15. After Cyrus, the great King of Persia, had conquered Babylon, he issued an edict permitting the Jews to return to their own country, and to rebuild the city and Temple of Jerusalem. Only a small number, under Zerubbabel, returned at first, and commenced rebuilding the Temple, but the work was not fully completed till B. C. 575. About the year 406, B. C., Ezra and Nemiah, and a large number of their countrymen, returned to Palestine, rebuilt the Holy City and re-established the laws of Moses. The King of Persia appointed Nemiah Governor of Judea, which was then a province of the Persian empire. Judea was afterwards joined to the Persian Satrapy of Syria. The Jews, being taught that their misfortunes were the wages of their idolatry, were careful, after the Babylonian captivity, to avoid intercourse with idolatrous nations.

CHAPTER IX.

MEDIA AND PERSIA.

1. THE Median Empire was an outgrowth of the Assyrian, the Medes originally settling south of the Caspian sea, under the Assyrian dominion. About the year 708, B. C., however, the Medes rebelled and gained their independence. They selected Ecbatana as the capital of the Kingdom, and Dejoces was their first King. Dejoces was succeeded by his son, Phraotes, who conquered the Persians, a people similar to the Medes in religion, language and customs. The Kingdom of Media increased greatly in importance under Cyaxares, the successor of Phraotes, and its territory was greatly increased; but Astyages, the fourth and last King of Media, was deposed by Cyrus, who founded the great Persian Empire, which, for over two hundred years, was the leading power in Asia.

**Edict of
Cyrus—Re-
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**The Median
Empire.**

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2. Cyrus was a grandson of Astyages, whose daughter married a Persian. Cyrus was an ardent Persian, and exciting the Persians to rebellion, he raised an army, invaded Media, deposed his grandfather, and subjected the Medes to Persian rule. Cyrus was chosen King of the new Kingdom, and by his talents as a soldier and a statesman, soon placed Persia in the foremost rank of Eastern nations, and gained for himself the surname of "the Great."

3. One of the first acts of Cyrus was to declare war against his neighbor, Crœsus, an exceedingly rich and powerful potentate, King of Lydia, an extensive country in Asia Minor. Cyrus invaded Lydia B. C. 546, and after defeating the Lydians at the battle of Thymbra, captured and burned Sardis, the capital, and made Crœsus his prisoner. The wealth of Crœsus was fabulous, and the tradition of it exists to the present day in the popular saying, "as rich as Crœsus," applied to designate persons of vast wealth. The fall of Sardis was followed by the capture of other Greek cities, and the whole of Asia Minor fell under the sway of the Persians. The next conquest which Cyrus attempted was that of the Babylonian Empire, of which Belshazzar was then King. The city of Babylon was the most celebrated for size, magnificence and strength, of ancient times; and, indeed, it is doubtful whether the world has ever seen its superior. The walls were of immense size; according to Herodotus, they inclosed a square of fourteen miles, were eighty-five feet thick, and three hundred and twenty-five feet high. Cyrus besieged the city, and in order to capture it, turned the course of the Euphrates, which flowed through it, into a new channel which he had dug for it, and entered the city by the old channel. Every reader of Scripture will remember the description in Daniel of Belshazzar's feast, and the handwriting on the

wall, "Mene, mene, tekel, upharsin,"—"thou art weighed in the balance and found wanting,—which appeared while the last Babylonian King was sacrilegiously using the vessels of the Temple at his feast; and the entry of Cyrus into the city on that same night. Cyrus dismantled the walls, and in spite of their enormous size, not a single trace of them can to-day be found in the ruins of Babylon. The prophecy of Isaiah, "the broad walls of Babylon shall be utterly broken," has been literally fulfilled. Cyrus caused Belshazzar to be put to death, and continued his conquests, bringing Syria, Palestine and Phœnicia under Persian rule; he also allowed the captive Jews to return to Jerusalem and rebuild the Temple.

4. Inflated with his successes Cyrus sought for new fields for conquest and invaded Scythia, where he was at first successful, but was at last totally defeated and taken prisoner by the Scythian Queen, Thomyris, who caused him to suffer a cruel and ignominious death out of revenge for the death of her son who had been killed in battle.

**Death of
Cyrus.**

5. Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, succeeded his father to the Persian throne; and immediately after his ascension invaded Egypt, where he overthrew Psammenitus, the king, at the battle of Pelusium, and subjected the country to Persian rule.

**Conquest of
Egypt.**

Cambyses was cruel and tyrannical, and put Psammenitus to a violent death, besides treating the conquered Egyptians with great cruelty. Cambyses continued his conquests, subduing some of the African tribes, and the Greek colony of Cyrenica; but he lost two great armies, one which he had sent to conquer Sirvah, where the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon was, perishing in a simoon in the desert; and another which he sent against Ethiopia being almost entirely destroyed by famine. Cambyses died, B. C. 521, from the effects of a sword wound which he accidentally inflicted on himself, after a nine years' reign of great cruelty and tyranny.

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6. The successor of Cambyses was Darius Hystaspes, who added greatly to the extent and importance of the Persian Empire. Shortly after he was raised to the throne Babylon revolted from Persian rule, but was subdued by Darius, after a siege of nearly two years. Darius behaved with great cruelty to the inhabitants, upwards of 3,000 of whom he caused to be put to death; and still further continued the destruction of the city which Cyrus had begun. He caused the walls to be demolished, and tore down the hundred gates of which Babylon had been so proud.

**Revolt of
Babylon.**

7. Darius next turned his attention to the conquest of Scythia, where Cyrus had been defeated and killed; but he had no better success than his predecessor, for the Scythians, finding they could not successfully withstand him, retreated before him, laying waste the country as they went, and Darius was obliged to make a disgraceful retreat to save the whole of his army from perishing by starvation.

**Defeat of
Darius by the
Scythians.**

8. Darius was more successful in his next enterprises, conquering the whole of India, and easily suppressing a revolt of the Greek cities of Asia Minor.

**Conquest of
India.**

9. Darius devoted much attention to the consolidation, as well as the enlargement of his empire; and for this purpose divided it into twenty provinces, over each of which he placed a governor, called a satrap, and he established three capitals, Susa, Ecbatana, and Babylon, to be used in the spring, summer, and winter respectively. Some idea of the size of the Persian Empire under Darius and his successors may be formed from the fact that it extended from Greece to India, and from the deserts of Africa to Central Asia. It included portions of Thrace and Macedon in Europe, Egypt and other portions of Africa, and all that part of Asia now known as Turkey, Persia, Beloochistan, Afghanistan, and Turkestan.

**Extent of the
Persian Em-
pire.**

10. The last war in which Darius was engaged, and which lasted for forty years, and ended disastrously for the Persians, was with Greece. This war was an inglorious one for Persia, and terminated with the subjugation of the Persians under Artaxerxes, by the Greeks under Alexander the Great.

Forty years
war with
Greece.

11. Rapid as the rise of the Empire, so was its decline rapid. The immense empire was only held together by military power, and after the death of Darius the people gave themselves up to luxury and lost all this military prestige, so that they became effeminate, and the Empire fell an early prey to Alexander the Great, after an existence of about two centuries.

Fall of the
Empire.

12. The religion of the Medes and Persians was that founded by the sage Zoroaster and explained in the sacred books of the Zend-Avesta, according to which there are two principles, a good spirit, Ormuzd, and an evil spirit, Ahriman, which shall wage war against each other until the end of the world, when the good spirit shall triumph and the human race be rendered happy. This religion was represented by a powerful priesthood called the Magi; and the good spirit was worshipped under the form of the sun and fire.

Religion of
the Medes
and Persians.

CHAPTER X.

HISTORY OF GREECE.

1. AMONGST the nations of Ancient History Greece takes the foremost place; and although her dimensions were much larger than the Greece of to-day, they were still small in comparison with the great amount of territory conquered by her, and the immense influence which her civilization has had on the civilization of the present day. Ancient Greece was about 400 miles in length, and embraced a large portion of what is now Turkey in Europe. It was divided into three Pro-

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vinces, which might be called, Southern, Central, and Northern Greece.

2. Southern Greece, known as the Peloponnesus, was about 140 miles long, and embraced all the peninsula now called Morea. Its capital was Sparta, in Laconia; and it included the States of Laconia, Argolis, Achaia, Arcadia, Elis and Messenia.

**Southern
Greece.**

3. The Central portion of Greece was known as Hellas, and embraced the States of Attica, Bœotia, Eubœa, Doris, Phocis, Locris, Ætolia, and Acarnania. It was of less extent than the Peloponnesus, and its chief cities were Athens, the capital of Attica, and Thebes, the capital of Bœotia.

**Central
Greece.**

4. Northern Greece is now a part of the Turkish Empire and consisted of three States, Macedonia, Thessaly and Epirus, now known as Albania. It was in Northern Greece that the celebrated Mount Olympus was situated, the classic hill which was regarded as the residence of the gods and goddesses.

**Northern
Greece.**

5. The gods and goddesses of the Greeks were divided into three classes, the celestial, the marine, and the infernal. The celestial gods were Jupiter, Apollo, Mars, Mercury, Bacchus and Vulcan, of whom Jupiter was the chief. Neptune was the chief of the marine duties, and Pluto of the infernal.

**Grecian My-
thology.**

6. The accredited residence of the gods was Mount Olympus, in Thessaly; and by them all the affairs of mortals were supposed to be governed. These gods were worshipped by the Romans as well as the Greeks.

**Mount
Olympus.**

7. The Grecian mythology is curious. According to it, at the beginning was Chaos a shapeless mass; then came Earth, by whom was produced Uranus, or Heaven. Earth and Uranus married and produced a race of giants, known as the Titans, who made war against their father Uranus and dethroned

**Origin of the
Gods.**

him. Saturn succeeded Uranus but was also dethroned by the Titans. Saturn had ordered all his male children killed as soon as they were born, but his wife Rhea concealed Jupiter, Neptune and Pluto. When the Titans dethroned Saturn, Jupiter made war on them and restored his father to the throne; but afterwards deposed him and reigned in his stead.

Division of the Gods.

8. On Jupiter assuming control he divided the universe into three parts, he retaining Heaven for himself, and becoming chief and father of the gods, and assigning the sovereignty of the sea to Neptune, and of the infernal regions to Pluto.

The minor deities.

9. Apollo was the driver of the sun; and is frequently styled "the sun god." He was also the god of poetry, music, and medicine. A magnificent temple to Apollo was created in Delphi, and in it was the renowned Delphic Oracle, which people from all parts of Greece consulted to learn the events of the future. Mars was the god of war. Mercury was the messenger of the gods, and was the patron of travellers, shepherds, merchants, orators, and thieves; he was also the inventor of letters. Bacchus was the god of wine and of drunkards. He was, also, a great conqueror, having subdued India and other countries. Vulcan was the god of blacksmiths and armorer of the gods, having his forges under Mount Etna, in the island of Sicily.

The goddesses.

10. There were six goddesses; Juno, Minerva, Diana, Venus, Ceres, and Vesta, of whom Juno was the chief, she being the wife and sister of Jupiter, and queen of heaven. Minerva was the goddess of wisdom. Diana was the goddess of hunting, and one of the most famous temples of ancient times was erected in her honor at Ephesus, one of the principal towns of Asia Minor. Venus was the goddess of beauty, and the queen of pleasure. Ceres was the goddess of corn and of harvests. Vesta was the virgin goddess who presided over the domestic hearth.

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CHAPTER XI.

HISTORY OF GREECE—(Continued).

1. THE date of the first settlement of Greece is uncertain; but the early inhabitants, the Pelasgians, were mere savages, who were overcome by the Hellenes, an Asiatic people who invaded Greece more than 2,000 years B. C. There were three tribes of the Hellenes, the Dorians, the Ionians, and the Æolians.

First settle-
ment of
Greece.

2. The first city in Greece was Argos, the capital of Argolis, which was founded by Mochus, a Phœnician, in the year 1856, B. C. The next city in point of antiquity was Athens, in Attica, which was founded just three hundred years after Argos, by an Egyptian named Cecrops, who named it Athens, after the goddess Minerva, or Athena, which, as Minerva was the goddess of wisdom and the arts, proved in later years to be an appropriate name, for Athens was for many years the seat of learning for the whole civilized world. Corinth was founded in 1520, B. C. Sparta, or Lacedæmon, the capital of Laconia, and one of the most celebrated cities in Grecian history, was founded in 1520, B. C., by an Egyptian named Lelex. About the year 1493, B. C., Cadmus, a Phœnician, founded the city of Thebes, the capital of Bœotia, together with its famous citadel, which was called Cadmea, after him.

The First
Wells.

3. An Egyptian named Danaus is said to have taught the people of Argos to dig wells, when he arrived in that city with his fifty daughters, in the year 1485, B. C.

4. About the year 1350, B. C., Pelops, the king of Phrygia, landed in the southern peninsula of Greece, and named it, after himself, Peloponnesus, or the island of Pelops.

The Pele-
ponnesus.

5. One of the most celebrated of the fabulous personages of the Greek mythology during what is known as the Heroic Age, was Hercules, who may be called the Samson of the Greeks, and of whom many marvellous feats of strength are recorded.

Amongst these may be mentioned the cleaning of the Augean stables, which had not been cleaned for thirty years, a task which was set him by the king of Elis. This Hercules accomplished by turning into them a river which ran close by. Another feat recorded of him while an infant is the crushing to death of two huge serpents which Juno had sent to destroy him. He is also said to have killed the Nemean lion by putting his arms around its neck, and strangling it.

6. One of the most marvellous feats recorded of Hercules is the destruction of the Hydra of Lerna. This was an enormous nine-headed serpent, whose heads possessed the remarkable power of growing out again immediately after they were cut off. To prevent this, Hercules used a hot iron to sear the neck as each head was cut off, and so destroyed the gigantic reptile.

7. The most wonderful of the recorded feats of Hercules, however, is that of changing the Mediterranean from a lake into a sea by connecting it with the Atlantic Ocean. He is said to have travelled into Spain and killed the giant Geryon, king of Gades, now Cadiz, who had three heads, six arms and six legs. He then separated Spain from Africa by piling up the mountains on each side and allowing the water to flow through what is now the Strait of Gibraltar, the high rocks on each side of which were called the Pillars of Hercules.

8. Another celebrated personage of the Heroic Age to whom feats of strength similar to those of Hercules are ascribed is Theseus, who was king of Athens. During the early part of his reign, he ruled with wisdom and mildness, and contributed much to

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the progress of Athens; but in the latter part of his life he became an adventurer and robber; and committed numerous crimes. Amongst these was the abduction of Helen, the daughter of Tyndarus, king of Sparta. Helen was rescued by her brothers, Castor and Pollux, who were afterwards deified.

9. In the time of Hercules, Jason, a prince of Thessaly, went on the celebrated Argonautic Expedition, which was so called from the ship *Argo*, in which he sailed. This expedition was fitted out to avenge the murder of Phryxus, a Theban prince, by his uncle, the king of Colchis, a country of the eastern border of the Black Sea. The Argonautic Expedition.

10. The story of Phryxus, as told by the Greek poets, is that he and his sister Helle, being persecuted by their step-mother, determined to seek protection from their uncle, who was king of Colchis. For this purpose they mounted on the back of a winged ram with a golden fleece; but during their journey, Helle fell from the back of the ram while it was crossing the Strait now known as the Dardanelles, and was drowned, for which reason the Strait was called the Hellespont, or Sea of Helle. Phryxus arrived safely, and sacrificed his winged ram to Jupiter, and put the golden fleece in that deity's temple, in acknowledgment of his protection. The king of Colchis, coveting the golden fleece, killed Phryxus to obtain it. Jason was successful in recovering the golden fleece, and afterwards married Medea, the daughter of the king of Colchis. The Story of the Golden Fleece.

11. The most important event of the early period of Grecian history is the Trojan War, which resulted in the capture of Troy, after a siege of ten years, B. C. 1194-1184, a full account of which is given in Homer's *Iliad*. The cause of the war was the abduction of Helen, wife of Menelaus, king of Sparta, by Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, or Ilium, in The Trojan War.

Asia Minor. The Greek chiefs united to resent the outrage, and, crossing the Aegean Sea, laid siege to Troy.

12. The greatest of the Greek leaders were Agamemnon, Achilles and Ulysses, of whom Agamemnon was the chief. Many great exploits of these leaders are recorded in the Iliad, the principal of which was the killing of the Trojan leader, Hector; by Achilles. The siege lasted ten years, and the Greeks seemed as far from success as ever, when Ulysses thought of a clever stratagem by which the city was taken.

13. The Greeks constructed an immense wooden horse opposite the gates of the city, and, having concealed some soldiers in it, feigned to abandon the siege, retiring to a distance and leaving their horse. This the Trojans at once captured and took into the city, and during the night the soldiers got out of the horse, opened the gates and admitted the Grecian army to the city. Troy was reduced to ashes, and the inhabitants either put to the sword or driven away. The conquerors, however, also suffered greatly, and the three leaders all met with misfortunes. Agamemnon was murdered by his wife; Achilles, who was said to have been dipped in the river Styx, by his mother, and so rendered invulnerable, died in Troy from a wound in the heel, the part by which she held him and which was not invulnerable; and Ulysses wandered about for ten years before reaching his native shores.

14. In the year 1104, B.C., the Dorians invaded the Peloponnesus and took possession of it, driving away the inhabitants, or reducing them to slavery. The Dorians came from the mountainous country of Doris, and were led by the descendants of Heracles. They gradually subdued Corinth, Argolis, Sicyon, Messina and Laconia, and thus the fate of the whole Peloponnesus was changed. This event is known as "The Return of the Heraclidae."

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15. The Dorians next tried to push their conquest into Attica, and in the year 1068, B. C., invaded that country and laid siege to Athens. The Dorians consulted the Delphic Oracle as to the success of their enterprise, and were told that they would capture Athens, provided they did not ^{Devotion of Codrus.} Codrus, the Athenian king. When he heard of the prophecy of the Delphic Oracle, Codrus determined to sacrifice himself to save his country; he therefore disguised himself as a peasant and visited the Dorian camp, where he provoked a quarrel with a soldier, and was killed. When the Dorians recognized the body of Codrus, they gave up the attempt to capture Athens, and retreated to their own country.

16. The Athenians were so much affected by the patriotic devotion of Codrus, that they declared there was no one worthy to succeed him as king, and so they abolished the monarchy altogether and ^{Athens a Republic.} established a republic, the chief magistrates of which were called Archons and were at first chosen for life, afterwards for a period of ten years, and still later, a Senate of Archons was elected annually.

CHAPTER XII.

HISTORY OF GREECE—(Continued).

1. THERE was one spot in Greece which escaped the ravages of intestine war, and that was the sacred city of Delphi, the chosen spot of Apollo, where there was a grand temple to him, and where the ^{The Temple of Delphi.} celebrated oracular utterances, in which the Greeks believed, were delivered.

2. In order to thoroughly protect the temple from contending armies, it was placed under the special protection of the Amphictyonic Council, which consisted of two deputies from each of the leading ^{The Amphictyonic Council.} states of Greece, and was so called from its

legendary founder, Amphietyon, who is said to have been one of the early kings of Attica. This council met twice a year, in the spring at Delphi, and in the autumn at the pass of Thermopylæ. The duty of the Council was to settle all religious and political disputes which might arise between the states, and to decide on all proposals for peace or war with foreign nations. This Council was frequently of great advantage to the Greeks, but could not always prevent discords amongst them.

3. After the establishment of the Athenian Republic, many states followed the example of Athens, and gradually nearly all the monarchies were abolished and republics established. This division of the country into so many governments—for each Grecian town was a republic—caused great internal dissension, and almost constant war, which greatly retarded civilization.

4. In order to produce more harmony, Ephitus, king of Elis, conceived the idea of instituting the Olympic Festival, which was authorized by the Delphic Oracle, and was held every fourth year at Olympia, from which the festival acquired the name of the Olympiad. This festival was instituted in the year 884, B. C., and all the people of Greece were invited to it. In order that the people of all the states may attend, the Delphic Oracle commanded a general armistice to commence some time before, and continue some time after the festival. The festival consisted of religious rites, sacrifices to Jupiter, and different games and sports, such as wrestling and boxing matches, foot and chariot races, and other contests which required strength and agility. There were also contests in composition and music, and the victors were crowned with olive wreaths, which was esteemed a great honor.

5. The changes which had taken place in the peninsula from time to time, had caused several Greek colonies

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to be formed in Asia Minor. When the inhabitants of the Peloponnesus were driven out by the Dorians and the Heraclidæ, many of them crossed the *Ægean Sea*, and thus the twelve *Æolian* states, which afterwards united into the *Æolian Confederacy*, were formed. Further south the Ionians founded the Ionian colonies, which afterwards formed the Ionian Confederacy.

6. Numerous other colonies were also formed along the shores of the *Euxine*, or *Black Sea*, the *Propontis*, (now the *Sea of Marmora*), the *Hellespont*, (now the *Dardanelles*), and in *Cyprus*, *Crete*, *Thrace* and *Macedonia*. The city of *Byzantium* (now *Constantinople*), was founded by *Byzas* in the year 606, B. C., and was the most flourishing of the Greek colonies in that quarter.

7. The Greeks did not content themselves with colonizing in Asia Minor and the islands; they formed several large and important colonies in Northern Africa, in Sicily and Italy, and in process of time the Grecian race, language, religion, institutions and manners were gradually diffused over nearly all the fairest portions of the then known world.

CHAPTER XIII.

HISTORY OF GREECE—(Continued).

1. FROM the time of the conquest of the Peloponnesus by the Dorians, Lacedæmon had differed from the other States inasmuch as it had two kings who reigned jointly. About 800 years B. C., on the death of *Polydectes*, one of the kings, he was succeeded by his brother *Lycurgus*, but he soon resigned in favor of his nephew and retired from Greece. His object was to study the laws of other nations, and then frame a constitution for Lacedæmon.

2. For this purpose he studied for some time the laws of Minos, the great Cretan lawgiver, and afterwards travelled in Egypt and India, where he studied the laws of those nations, and gained much knowledge from the priests and Brahmins.

Travels and studies of Lycurgus.

3. On his return to Greece Lycurgus devoted himself to preparing his code, and consulted the Delphic Oracle, which told him that the constitution he should frame would be the best ever known. He next secured the support of some of the leading citizens of Sparta, and obtained the enactment of his code of laws, which were to put the system of government, the division of property, and the education of the people on a new and unchangeable basis.

He establishes a code of laws.

4. Lycurgus established a senate of thirty members, who were elected for life, and who must be sixty years of age before they could be elected. The two kings were members of the Senate and presided over it; and they were also commanders of the army. Besides the Senate there were assemblies of the people, but they could only accept or reject what had been proposed by the Senate, having no power to originate any measures. To guard against the exercise of unconstitutional power, five officers, called Ephori, were chosen every year by the people of Sparta, for the purpose of punishing by flogging, or fine, all who violated the constitution and the laws, and from this punishment none were exempt, not even the Kings and Senators.

His political institutions.

5. The next object of Lycurgus was to reform the social institutions and manners of the Spartan people; and his first step in this direction was to divide all the lands of Laconia equally among all the free citizens of Sparta. His next effort was to prevent the accumulation of wealth, and for this purpose he forbade the use of gold and silver for currency, and substituted iron money, to which very little value was attached.

His social reforms.

so that the Spartan coins were very bulky and unwieldy, a dollar weighing as much as fifty pounds.

6. He caused useless arts and foreign commerce to be abandoned so as to prevent the growth of luxury; and, in order to still further insure simplicity in diet,

He tries to prevent luxury.

all Spartans, of whatever age or rank, were compelled to eat at the public tables, which were supplied with the plainest and least relishing food, each individual being required to contribute monthly a certain portion of provisions for the public use. Regular attendance at the public tables was strictly enforced, and no one was permitted to eat at home or in private.

7. Lycurgus also devoted much care to the introduction of a short and forcible style of expression in conversation,

He introduces the "Laconic" style.

and succeeded so well that the Spartans soon became celebrated for the terseness and brevity of their speech, which got to be called the "Laconic" style, from Laconia, the name of the Spartan Territory. Spartans were not allowed to visit other countries, and strangers were only permitted to remain a very short time in Sparta.

8. The State took charge of all children from infancy.

Every child, as soon as born, had to be taken to certain public officers who examined it; and if it was found to be deformed, it was regarded as being of no use to the State, and destroyed. At the

Deformed children destroyed.

age of six all children were taken from their parents and educated in public. Their education, however, was a mere physical one, and very little attention was paid to their mental culture. The youths were made to be very temperate, and in order to disgust them with drunkenness the slaves were made drunk, so that the youths might see how they degraded themselves and avoid excess.

9. The sole object of Lycurgus' style of education was to make the Spartans a warlike race, and the youths were taught to be sober, cunning, brave, insensible to hardship,

The object of his system. patient, obedient to their superiors and unyielding in their devotion to their country. His object, however, was not conquest, for he feared that an extension of their territory would make the people luxurious. To make them cunning in war, they were taught and encouraged to steal provisions, and if they were caught they were whipped, not for stealing but for getting caught.

All labor done by the slaves. 10. All the agriculture and mechanical arts were performed by the slaves, who were called Helots from the town of Helos, which their ancestors occupied before they were conquered by the Dorians. The free citizens of Lacedæmon only employed themselves in war and military exercises, in superintending the public schools, in conversation, or in religious exercises. The principle underlying the whole system of Lycurgus was, the citizen for the State, not the State for the citizen.

Death of Lycurgus. 11. It is said that after Lycurgus had finished his code of laws he went into voluntary exile, after having made the Spartans swear that they would not change or violate any of his laws until his return. But he never intended to return; he went to Crete, where he died, and the Spartans, bound by their oath, were obliged to abide by his laws forever.

Effect of Lycurgus training. 12. The strict discipline to which the laws of Lycurgus subjected the Spartans soon began to bear fruit in forming them into a brave and warlike people; and in many of their wars with neighboring nations their abstemious habits, patience, endurance and courage, stood them in good stead. Amongst the most famous of their wars were the two with the Messenians, the first of which commenced in the year 743, B. C., and lasted twenty years. The Messenians, under Aristodemus, made a gallant defence, but were at last subjugated and held under Spartan rule.

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13. The severe rule of the Spartans caused great discontent amongst the conquered Messenians, and in the year 685 B. C. they revolted, and struggled for seventeen years for their liberty. At first they, under their able general Aristomenes, defeated the Spartans and almost secured their freedom; but the Spartans applied to the Oracle at Delphi, and were told that they must seek a leader amongst the Athenians if they wished to be successful. In reply to their request the Athenians sent them in derision, a lame poet and schoolmaster who, however, proved a most efficient leader, for by his patriotic appeals he fired the enthusiasm of the Spartans, and the Messenians were thoroughly subjugated. The defeated Messenians were reduced to slavery, but many of them emigrated to Sicily and founded the city of Messana.

The Second
Messenian
King.

CHAPTER XIV.

HISTORY OF GREECE—(Continued).

1. While the effect of the stern laws of Lycurgus was the advancement of Sparta, Athens was greatly disturbed by factious dissensions, and the three classes of her citizens were arrayed against each other in most bitter hostility. To amend this state of affairs Draco, one of the leading nobles, formed a code of laws; but they were so severe that it is said "they were written in blood instead of ink." The most trifling offence was punishable with death, and the whole system was so manifestly intended as a means for the oppression of the poor by the nobility, that it was soon abolished.

Miserable
state of
Athens.

2. The condition of Athens was now most deplorable. The poor were most terribly oppressed by the rich, and those who were unable to pay could be sold as slaves. A war between the rich and the poor seemed almost inevitable, when Solon

Solon.

was requested to frame a Code. He was a wise and talented man, a descendant of Codrus, and one of the seven wise men of Greece. The citizens first desired him to declare himself King of Athens; but this he declined to do, and prepared a code of laws for the guidance of the people.

3. Solon's first reform was the cancelling of the debts of the poorer classes, which they were unable to pay; he next reduced the rate of interest, and abolished imprisonment or enslavement for debt. He

Solon's Reforms.

also repealed all the laws of Draco, except the one punishing murder with death. He then divided the citizens into four classes, according to their incomes. The two highest classes were the nobles and aristocracy, and formed the cavalry in time of war, while the two lower classes formed the infantry. The highest class paid the largest amount of taxes, the remainder of which was paid by the second and third class, and the fourth class was exempt from taxation. The highest offices were open only to the first class, and the lower class could not hold office at all. Laws were made by the Senate, which was composed of four hundred citizens, elected annually, and afterwards ratified by the people.

4. To insure a fair trial of his code of laws, Solon made the people of Athens swear to abide by them for ten years, and for that time absented himself from Athens, travelling in Egypt, Crete and Lydia, and on his return it was found that his system had been productive of much good, and that Athens had greatly increased in prosperity.

A Ten years Trial of Solon's Code.

5. After the adoption of the laws of Solon, the government was usurped by Pisistratus, a relative of his, who was a leader of the democratic party, and a great favorite with the lower classes. By a stratagem he gained possession of the citadel, and made himself sole ruler or tyrant of Athens. His

The Tyrants of Athens.

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rule, however, was mild and just. He encouraged art and literature, and treated the poor generously. On his death he was succeeded by his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus, who for a time followed in the footsteps of their father, but Hipparchus being assassinated, Hippias became so tyrannical that he and his family were banished from Athens about 500, B. C., and settled in Asia Minor, where he did much to bring about a war between Persia and Greece.

6. The seven wise men of Greece were Thales, of Miletus; Solon, of Athens; Periander, of Corinth; Bias, of Priene; Chilo, of Lacedæmon; Cleobulus, of Lyndus; and Pittacus, of Mitylene. They sought by many wise rules and maxims to improve the condition of the people.

*The Seven
Wise Men
of Greece.*

CHAPTER XV.

HISTORY OF GREECE—(Continued).

1. THE Greek States were now in a flourishing condition, when a war commenced with Persia, which, for its duration and the immense number employed on one side, has seldom been equalled in the annals of the world. The Greek cities of Asia Minor, which had been conquered by Cyrus the Great, and added to Persia, revolted, and were assisted by Athens. The revolt was suppressed by Darius Hystaspes, who was so much enraged at the assistance the Athenians had given, that he determined to invade Greece, and for this purpose sent a large army, under the command of Mardonius, to subjugate the country. Mardonius was at first successful, and occupied Thrace and Macedonia; but the Persian fleet being defeated off Mount Athos, he was obliged to retreat with his army to Asia Minor.

*The Persian
War.*

2. In the year 490, B. C., Darius determined to make another attack on Greece, and assembled a large army

The Persian Invasion.

for that purpose. He sent heralds to the Greek cities demanding earth and water as tokens of submission. Some of the smaller cities at once surrendered; but the citizens of Athens and Sparta threw the heralds into wells, and told them to get their earth and water there. This greatly exasperated Darius, and he sent an army of 120,000 men, under the command of Datis and Artaphanes, into Greece. After conquering several islands in the Ægean Sea, and destroying the city of Eretria, the Persian army entered Attica, and advanced towards Athens.

3. The Athenians were greatly alarmed at the immense number of the Persians, and appealed to the Spartans for help; but they refused, out of superstitious

The Battle of Marathon.

fear to give any assistance until after a full moon. The Athenians, thus left to themselves, had only 10,000 men, with which they marched to the attack of the Persian army, numbering over 100,000 men, which was encamped on the plains of Marathon, about twenty miles from Athens. The Athenians were under the command of ten generals, the chief of whom was Miltiades, and after a long conflict the Persians were defeated with immense slaughter, and fled in confusion from the shore, seeking safety in their ships.

4. Miltiades was now looked on as the saviour of Greece, and, for a time, lauded and honored; but, having failed to subdue the island of Paros, his ungrateful countrymen condemned him to pay a fine of fifty talents, and threw him into prison, where he died. Cimon, his son, paid the fine after his death.

5. After the death of Miltiades, two men divided for awhile the honors of Athens. These were Aristides and Themistocles.

Aristides and Themistocles.

Both had the same object in view,—the welfare of the State; but they sought it in different ways. Aristides resembled

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Lycurgus, of Sparta, inasmuch as he had no personal ambition, and wished the citizen to be subservient to the State, for the general good. Themistocles, also, wished to make Athens great; but it was that he might be the greatest man in Athens. One was national ambition; the other personal ambition. Themistocles was bold, artful and unscrupulous, and, by using these qualities, procured the banishment of Aristides.

6. Themistocles, having gained chief power in Athens, devoted all his energies to promoting the welfare and enlarging the power of his country. He saw that for Athens to be great, she must have power on the sea as well as the land; he, therefore, turned his attention to the navy, and with such success that in a few years Athens was the acknowledged mistress of the seas.

The Athenian Navy.

7. Darius, king of Persia, was greatly annoyed at the defeat of his army at the battle of Marathon, and collected an immense host to invade Greece again. He died, however, before he had completed his arrangements, and his son Xerxes, who succeeded him, entered Greece in the year 480, B. C., at the head of the largest army ever known, numbering over 2,000,000 fighting men. No resistance was made to his advance until he reached the Pass of Thermopylæ, where he was opposed by the insignificant band of 8,000 Greeks, under the command of Leonidas, king of Sparta.

Second Invasion of Greece by the Persians.

8. Xerxes sent a herald to the Greeks, ordering them to lay down their arms; but Leonidas replied, "If you want them, come and take them." An attempt was made to intimidate the Greeks by telling them that the Persians were so numerous that their darts would darken the sun. "So much the better," replied Diogenes, a Spartan; "then we shall fight in the shade." The Persians attacked, and were held at bay for many days by the heroic band of Greeks; but the latter

Battle of the Pass of Thermopylæ.

were at last betrayed by a Greek named Epialtes, who, for a large bribe, showed the Persians a secret pass over the mountains. When Leonidas found that he had been betrayed, and that his army was likely to be flanked, he ordered all his troops to retire, except 300 Spartans and 700 Thespians, headed by himself, with which small body he held the pass against the vast Persian host, until he and every one of the noble band was killed, their dead bodies actually blocking up the pass. A monument was in after years erected at this spot, on which was the inscription: "Go, stranger, and tell at Lacedæmon that we died here in obedience to her laws."

9. The dearly bought victory at Thermopylæ, gave the Persians entrance into Attica, and they devastated the Province, and burned Athens after it had been abandoned by its inhabitants. This was in the year 480 B. C.

Burning of Athens.

10. While the Persians had been successful on land the wisdom of Themistocles in building up the Grecian navy, was shown. The Grecian fleet, under the command of Eurybiades, the Spartan admiral, had retired to the promontory of Artemisium, where it was pursued by the Persian fleet. Eurybiades wished to escape to Corinth; but Themistocles and Aristides, who had been restored to power, insisted on attacking the Persian fleet, which was done, and resulted in the battle of Salamis, one of the greatest sea fights of ancient times, in which the Persian fleet was badly annihilated, and the power of Persia in Greece broken. This was in the same year that Athens was burned.

The battle of Salamis.

11. King Xerxes watched the battle of Salamis from a neighboring height, and was so much affected by the destruction of his navy that he fled in great haste from Greece with the greater part of his army, leaving 300,000 men under command of

Flight of Xerxes.

Mardonius.

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12. In the year after the battle of Salamis (B. C. 479) the Greeks won in one day the great land fight of Plataea, and the great sea fight of Mycale. In the former the Greeks, under the Spartan king Pausanias, and the Athenian, Aristides, totally defeated the Persians, killing 200,000, including their commander, Mardonius; and in the latter the Persian navy was annihilated, and the Persian admiral, Tigranes, and 40,000 of his men slain. This ended the Persian invasion; and the war was afterwards continued in the Persian domains to its close, B. C. 449.

Expulsion of
the Persians
from Greece.

13. The Greeks, under Pausanias, the Spartan, and Aristides, Themistocles, and Cimon, the Athenian leaders, now pushed the war vigorously in Persia and captured the island of Cyprus. The navy under Pausanias then proceeded against Byzantium, now Constantinople, which was taken after a spirited siege.

Capture of
Byzantium
by the Greeks.

14. After the capture of Byzantium, Pausanias, the Spartan king, proved a traitor to Greece; and agreed to aid the Persian king in subduing Greece, provided he would give him one of his daughters in marriage, and make him Governor of Greece, which was to be made into a Persian Province. The Spartans recalled Pausanias, and tried him for treason, but failed to convict him. He, however, continued to carry on a treasonable correspondence with the king of Persia, and was finally obliged to fly to the temple of Minerva, where he was starved to death.

Treachery
and death of
Pausanias.

15. The Greeks, under the command of Cimon, the Athenian, a son of Miltiades, gained another great naval victory over the Persians, in the year 469 B. C. Over two hundred Persian ships were taken, and the rest destroyed, while the Persian arms were cut to pieces. This was on the river Eurymedon, in Asia Minor. The war was continued for twenty years after this, until the death of Cimon, B. C.

Peace with
Persia.

449, when a treaty of peace was entered into between the two countries, by which the independence of all the Greek cities in Asia Minor was acknowledged by Persia.

CHAPTER XVII.

HISTORY OF GREECE (*Continued*).

1. During the continuance of the war with Persia, Themistocles caused Athens to be re-built and strongly fortified by being surrounded by great walls. He also established the fort of Piræus, which was afterwards connected with Athens by a double wall.

2. The success of Themistocles aroused the jealousy of the Spartans, as well as of his own countrymen, and a cabal was formed against him which resulted in his being banished for ten years. Themistocles repaired to the court of the King of Persia, where he was received with great honor and distinction; but the king proposing to him that he should lead an army against the Greeks, Themistocles poisoned himself, preferring death to the dishonor of fighting against the liberties of his own countrymen.

3. Aristides and Cimon succeeded to the control of Athens after the banishment of Themistocles; and the latter succeeded to the sole control on the death of Aristides. At this time Athens was the leading State in Greece, as Sparta had lost much of the influence she had exercised over the affairs of Greece on account of the treachery of Pausanias. The jealousy between Sparta and Athens had become very great during the Persian war, and a war between the two States seemed inevitable, when, in the year 464, B. C., Sparta was destroyed by an earthquake.

4. Three years after the earthquake the Spartan slaves, or Helots, revolted, and were joined by the Messenians,

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who also attempted to throw off the Spartan yoke, and fortified the citadel of Ithome. In this strait the Spartans invoked the aid of the Athenians, who, by advice of Cimon, sent an army to help them; but when the army arrived the Spartans were so jealous of the Athenians, and so afraid to trust them, that it was dismissed. This so exasperated the Athenians that they banished Cimon, who had sent the army; but he was afterwards re-called and re-installed in power. The Messenian war for independence lasted ten years; but they finally submitted to the Spartans, on the condition that they be allowed to remove with their families from the Peloponnesus to the northern shore of the Corinthian Gulf, which they did B. C. 453.

The Messenians and Spartan slaves, or Helots, revolt.

5. During this time Athens was rapidly progressing in power, wealth, splendor, and refinement; and under Pericles, a wise and virtuous ruler who succeeded Cimon, she arose to the highest pinnacle of power. Her navy ruled the seas, and all the islands in the Aegean Sea were compelled to acknowledge her supremacy. She, however, became involved in wars with minor Greek cities; and Sparta and Thebes, who were jealous of her, united with her enemies to humble her. The Spartans at first gained a slight advantage over the Athenians at the battle of Tanagra; but the Athenians shortly after gained a most brilliant victory over the Thebans, which restored the supremacy of Athens, and peace ensued for a short time.

Rapid progress of Athens.

CHAPTER XVIII.

HISTORY OF GREECE (*Continued*).

1. THE general peace which Greece now enjoyed was of short duration, and was soon broken by a war between Athens and Corinth which soon became general, and involved all the Grecian States in what is known as the Peloponnesian war, and

The Peloponnesian war B. C. 431-404.

which lasted twenty-seven years. The occasion of the war was the assistance which Athens gave to Corcyra, a colony of Corinth, which had revolted; and subsequently assistance given by Corinth to Potidæa, a revolted colony of Athens. The Corinthians accused Athens of interfering with their colonies, and induced the other Peloponnesian States, with Sparta at their head, to make war against Athens and her allies.

2. Archidannus, the Spartan king, invaded Attica in the year 481, B. C., at the head of 9,000 troops, and laid

Devastation of the Peloponnese.

waste the country; but the Athenian navy was at the same time committing great devastations on the coast of the Peloponnesus, and the Spartans soon had to retreat to defend their own country.

3. In the following year the Spartans returned to Attica, and threatened Athens. While the Spartans were

The plague in Athens.

laying waste Attica a great plague broke out in Athens which carried off many thousands of the inhabitants, amongst its victims being Pericles, whose wise and judicious government had raised Athens to her highest renown.

4. The war was continued with the utmost cruelty on both sides, and the most terrible ravages were committed.

Continuation of the war. In the year 480, B. C., Potidæa was taken by the Athenians and the inhabitants driven

away. In 427, B. C., the town of Platæa, which was in alliance with Athens, was taken by the Spartans and the garrison put to death and the women and children reduced to slavery.

5. After nine years of war, both sides got tired of it, and a treaty of peace, which was to last for fifty years, was agreed on. This treaty was known as the

A temporary peace.

"Peace of Nicias," but it did not last long, as the Corinthians and other allies of the Spartans held that it was humiliating to them, and so the Peloponnesian war was resumed.

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6. Amongst those who were most instrumental in bringing about, and keeping alive the ill-feeling between Sparta and Athens was Alcibiades, a nephew, of Pericles, who was a most eloquent orator; **Alcibiades.** but an unprincipled demagogue, who would sacrifice everything to gratify his own ambition. He hated Sparta; and, to gratify his passion induced the Athenians to subdue the island of Melos, which was in alliance with Sparta; and reduce the women and children to slavery. He also persuaded them to attempt the subjugation of Sicily, and a naval and military force under the command of Alcibiades, Nicias and Lamachus was sent against it.

7. Before the Athenian expedition had reached Sicily Alcibiades was disgraced for offenses against religion and ordered by the Athenian government to return home. Instead of doing this, however, he **Alcibiades joins the Spartans.** went to Sparta and offered his services to the Lacedæmonians, who received him gladly and accepted his services. He was now as bitterly opposed to Athens as he had previously been to Sparta, and gratified his revenge by inducing the Spartans to make war on Athens, and exciting the Athenian colonies to revolt.

8. The Athenian army and navy reached Sicily and laid siege to the city of Syracuse; but the Spartans came to the assistance of the Syracusans, and the **Disaster to the Sicilian Expedition.** whole Athenian fleet was destroyed. The land forces were also defeated, and the troops shut up in prison in Syracuse where many of them died, and the remainder were sold in to slavery. Of the two Athenian generals Lamachus was killed during the siege, and Nicias committed suicide when he heard that the Syracusans intended to put him to death.

9. Athens was in a very wretched condition at this time, and torn by dissensions between the aristocratic and

**Alcibiades
recalled to
Athens.**

democratic party. A revolution placed the "council of four hundred" in power; but they were soon displaced by a counter revolution, and the democratic government restored. About this time Alcibiades quarreled with the Spartans, and became reconciled to his countrymen, the Athenians. He was recalled to Athens, and having defeated the Spartan fleet at the battle of Cysicus, he was received with great demonstrations of joy on his entry into the city, and rewarded with a golden crown, and given the command of the army and navy of the Athenian republic.

10. The triumph of Alcibiades was not long-lived. In his absence the Athenian fleet was defeated by the Spartans, and Alcibiades was accused of neglect of duty, deprived of his command, and banished from Athens. He went first to Thrace, and afterwards to Asia Minor, where his assassination was caused by the Persian government at the instance of the Spartans.

**Assassina-
tion of Alci-
biades.**

11. About this time the Spartans received great assistance from Cyrus, son of king Darius of Persia, who was governor of the Persian Province of Asia Minor, and the Spartan fleet, under Lysander, destroyed the Athenian fleet at Egospotamos. Lysander then compelled the Athenians throughout Greece to return to their city, and attacked Athens both by land and water. The city was so overcrowded, that the Athenians were greatly reduced by famine; and were forced to surrender, B. C. 404. The long and strong walls of Athens were demolished; the Athenians made to restore all their conquests; to surrender their ships, all except twelve, and to join the Peloponnesian alliance. This was the end of the Peloponnesian war; and the downfall of the once great and powerful republic of Athens. From this period Sparta was the leading State in Greece, for many years, in power and political influence;

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and she frequently exercised her superiority in an arrogant and domineering manner towards the other Grecian communities.

12. After the capture of Athens, Lysander deposed the democratic party, and placed the government in the hands of thirty aristocratic rulers, who were friends of Sparta, and who, by their cruelty, rapacity and tyranny, gained for themselves the title of the "Thirty Tyrants of Athens." They were only in power eight months, when a number of Athenian exiles from all parts of Greece assembled in Bœotia, who chose Thrasybulus as their leader, advanced against Athens, and defeated a force which the Thirty Tyrants had sent against them.

The Thirty Tyrants of Athens.

13. The Thirty Tyrants were then deposed and a "Council of Ten" substituted. This was not much of an improvement, however, for they were as cruel and tyrannical as the thirty, so the Athenians revolted against them. They appealed to the Spartans for help; but they were divided into two parties at home, and finally allowed the Athenians to depose the Council of Ten, and resume their democratic form of government. This was in the year 403 B. C.

The Council of Ten.

14. During the rule of the restored democracy in Athens, the renowned Socrates, the wisest and most virtuous of the Grecian philosophers was condemned to death, B. C. 399, on a false charge of perverting and corrupting the morals of the young. He was found guilty by his judges and condemned to drink a cup of poison, which he did, disdaining the advice of his friends to save himself by flight.

Death of Socrates.

CHAPTER XVIII.

HISTORY OF GREECE (*Continued*).

1. ONE of the most memorable feats of the Greeks about this time was their retreat, under Xenophon, after

**The retreat
of the ten
thousand.**

the battle of Cunaxa, near Babylon. On the death of king Darius Nothus of Persia, his eldest son, Artaxerxes Memnon, succeeded him; but his brother Cyrus, who was then Satrap of Asia Minor, attempted to usurp the throne, and raised a large army with which to assert his rights. He secured as allies the Greek cities of Asia Minor, with whom he was on friendly terms, and together they raised an army of 113,000 men and invaded Persia, penetrating almost as far as Babylon. On the plain of Cunaxa they were met by Artaxerxes Memnon, with an army of 900,000 men, and totally defeated, Cyrus being killed. The Persian king offered terms of peace to the Greek allies; but broke faith with them and killed the ambassadors, who had been sent to negotiate the terms. The Greeks, finding that they would be forced to submit to the enemy, determined to fight their way back to their own cities, although they were about 1,000 miles from home. They chose Xenophon, a young Athenian as their leader, and under him commenced what is known as "The retreat of the ten thousand." They endured great hardships, and suffered many losses; but, after four months of almost unremitting travelling and fighting Xenophon arrived at the shores of the Euxine, or Black Sea, with 10,000 men. Xenophon afterwards became one of the most celebrated of the ancient historians, and wrote a very fine account of this famous retreat.

2. Artaxerxes Memnon, King of Persia, made war on the Greek cities of Asia Minor for the part they had taken

**The war with
Sparta and
Persia.** in the rebellion of his brother, Cyrus, against him. The Greek cities were assisted by

Sparta, and their king, Ageslaus, defeated the Persian satrap, Thissaphanes, in a great battle, fought near Sardis, B.C., 395. The Spartans soon, however, had enough to attend to in Greece, for Artaxerxes incited the States of Athens, Corinth, and Thebes to revolt against

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Spartan rule, and this led to what is known as the Corinthian war. Athens was supplied with a fleet which defeated the Spartan navy; and the walls of Athens were rebuilt by the help of Persia. The general war was terminated, B.C., 387, by what is known as the Peace of Antalcidas, from its being concluded between the Spartan, Antalcidas, and the Persian, Artaxerxes. This treaty was ratified by all the parties engaged in the war, and by it the Greek cities of Asia Minor and the Island of Cyprus were given up to Persia, and the independence of the various Greek Commonwealths was guaranteed.

3. The Spartans, who since the Peloponnesian war, had been the leading State in Greece, behaved with great severity to the smaller cities, and, on a slight pretext, took the city of Arcadia. They then Spartan wars with Olynthus and Thebes. turned their attention to the Macedonian city of Olynthus, and after a vigorous siege forced it to surrender. On its way to Olynthus a Spartan army captured the Cadmea near the citadel of Thebes, at a time when Sparta and Thebes were at peace. This led to the Theban war, which caused Thebes for a while to become the leading State in Greece, under the leadership of Pelopidas and Epaminondas. The Thebans gained many victories, and Epaminondas advanced to the very walls of Sparta, where a hostile army had not been seen for five hundred years. The brave Epaminondas was slain at the battle of Mantinea, where he gained another victory over the Spartans, and with his death the glory of Thebes faded. The most flourishing period for Greece had now passed.

CHAPTER XIX.

HISTORY OF GREECE (*Continued*).

1. ABOUT four years after the close of the Theban war, what is known as the Sacred War broke out, which event-

The Sacred War.

uated in the subjugation of the Greek States by Philip of Macedon, and the beginning of the Macedonian Period. The cause of the Sacred War was, that the Thebans, having a spite against the people of Phocis, brought a charge against them before the Amphictyonic Council, that they had been guilty of sacrilege, in using a portion of the lands belonging to the sacred temple of Apollo, at Delphi, for cultivation. The council found the Phocians guilty, and sentenced them to pay a heavy fine, instead of which, however, the Phocians robbed the temple at Delphi for means to carry on war against Thebes and the Amphictyonic Council. The Athenians and Spartans sided with the Phocians; while the Thebans, the Locrians, and the Thessalians united to sustain the Council.

2. The war raged for seven years, when Philip, King of Macedon, who had long wanted a pretext for interfering in the internal affairs of Greece, was asked to join the combination against Phocis. This he did, and entirely subjugated the Phocians. Phocis was deprived of its two votes in the Amphictyonic Council, and ceased to be an independent State, while Macedon was admitted as an Amphictyonic State. Many of the Phocians were carried into slavery, some emigrated, and those that remained were placed under tribute.

3. Philip soon had an opportunity to continue his plan for occupying Greece. On slight pretexts he had subdued the Greek cities Amphipolis and Olynthus, when the Locrians were charged with sacrilege in cultivating the grounds belonging to the sacred temple of Apollo at Delphi. The Locrians were fined, and, as they refused to pay Philip again led his army into Greece, but instead of attempting to subdue the Locrians, he seized and fortified the city of Elatea.

4. The Athenians were now aroused by the eloquence of Demosthenes to the great danger in which Greek lib-

King Philip of Macedon interferes.**Capture of Elatea.**

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erty stood from King Philip, and united with the Thebans against him; but their combined armies were defeated in the decisive battle of Chœronea, B. C. 338, by Philip, and an end put to the independence of the Greek republics.

End of Greek
independ-
ence.

5. Philip treated the conquered Greeks with great mildness and consideration, wishing to conciliate them, as he was then preparing for his long contemplated effort to subjugate the Persian Empire, which was getting into a tottering condition.

Assassina-
tion of Philip.

He assembled a Congress at Corinth, by which he was invested with the full command of the Grecian and Macedonian armies, and commenced preparations for a great invasion of Persia. While he was engaged in these preparations, however, he was assassinated by a Macedonian nobleman, named Pausanias, in revenge for some private injury. This was in the year 336, B. C.

CHAPTER XX.

HISTORY OF GREECE (continued).

1. PHILIP was succeeded by his son Alexander, who subsequently gained for himself the title of "the Great." Alexander had been carefully educated by the celebrated Athenian philosopher Aristotle, and proved himself not only a great warrior, but a ripe scholar and a wise and judicious ruler.

Alexander
the Great.

2. The accession to the throne of Macedon of Alexander was taken advantage of by the Illyrians and other Northern tribes, who had been subdued by Philip, to revolt, and they invaded Macedon; and some of the Great States, headed by Athens and Thebes, also attempted to throw off the Macedonian yoke. Alexander, who was very young, took command of his army himself, and by his prompt action quickly quelled the rebellion. Thebes was taken by

Revolt of the
Greek States.

than 200, while the destruction of the Persians was enormous, and the battle virtually was the death blow of Persian authority in Asia Minor.

6. Alexander's progress through Asia Minor was almost an unbroken triumphal procession. Nearly all the cities welcomed him, notably the important ones of Ephesus and Sardis. Miletus and Halicarnassus resisted, but were taken by storm after a vigorous resistance. Alexander treated the inhabitants of the conquered provinces with great consideration, allowing them to retain their institutions and customs; and endeavored by kind treatment to attach them to his cause. His first campaign closed in 334, B.C., with the complete conquest and pacification of Asia Minor, all the provinces having submitted to him.

Alexander's triumphal march through Asia Minor.

7. There is a tradition of Alexander during this campaign which goes far to show his character. On reaching the citadel of Gordium, he was shown a very ancient chariot, with a knot twisted to it in a most complicated manner, and told of a prophecy, by some ancient oracle, that no one could conquer Asia who could not loosen that knot. Alexander tried in vain to untie it, and, getting angry at his want of success, cut it with his sword, considering that was a sufficient fulfillment of the prophecy.

Cutting the Gordian knot.

Alexander wintered in Asia Minor and advanced into Syria in the spring of 333, B. C. Here he was met by the Persian King, Darius Codomannus, with an army of 700,000 men on the plain of Issus. The river Pinarus divided the contending forces, but this Alexander crossed in spite of the spirited resistance of the enemy, and the barbarian forces, which formed a large portion of the Persian army, almost immediately broke and fled. The main body of the Persians, however, resisted stubbornly, but were finally overcome, and Alexander was master of the field. The Persians are

Battle of Issus.

said to have had 110,000 men killed, while the Greeks only lost 500.

9. King Darius Codomannus fled early in the fight; but his wife and children fell into the hand of Alexander who, contrary to the customs of these times, treated them with great kindness; and when the wife of Darius died shortly after, Alexander gave her a magnificent funeral. It is said that, when King Darius heard of this, he exclaimed: "If it be the will of Heaven that I am no longer king of Asia, may Alexander be my successor."

Clemency of Alexander.

10. The victory of Issus made Alexander master of the greater part of Syria and Phœnicia. Damascus, Sidon and other cities surrendered, and a great quantity of treasure fell into Alexander's hands at the former place. The famous seaport

The capture of Tyre.

town of Tyre, however, refused to surrender; and, relying on its insular position and great strength, bade defiance to Alexander. In order to open a passage for his army to get at the city, Alexander caused a mole to be built from the mainland to the island on which the city was built; but the Tyrians annoyed the besiegers greatly with fiery darts, fire-ships, etc., and one night a fire-ship ignited the mole and destroyed nearly the whole of it. Alexander then became convinced that he needed a navy to reduce the city, so he collected all the vessels from Sidon and other cities, as well as the squadrons of Cyprus and Rhodes, and recommenced operations by both sea and land. He now got his mole completed, and was enabled to bring his battering rams to bear on the walls of the city; and, after seven months' siege, Tyre was carried by storm in spite of the most obstinate resistance. Alexander made the Tyrians suffer heavily for their resistance, 8,000 were killed and 30,000 sold into slavery.

11. Jerusalem submitted to Alexander after the capture of Tyre; but the Philistine city of Gaza held out, and

was taken. Alexander's garrison was killed. Battered and chained, the Greeks were around of Gaza.

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was taken by storm in the year 332, B.C., Alexander behaved with great cruelty to the garrison, 1,000 of whom were killed, and dragged Batis, the governor, around the city, chained to his chariot wheels, in barbarous imitation of the Grecian Achilles, who dragged the Trojan, Hector, around the walls of Troy in the same manner. The fall of Gaza completed the conquest of Palestine.

**Capture of
Gaza. Cruel
treatment of
its governor.**

12. Alexander next turned his attention to Egypt; but he had no need for force; the Egyptians were heartily tired of Persian rule, and gladly welcomed the Macedonian conqueror, and submitted to his sway. He treated the Egyptians with great consideration and moderation, and gained their favor and respect by worshipping their bull-god, Apis, while in Memphis.

**Conquest of
Egypt.**

13. While in Egypt Alexander founded a city, called Alexandria, in honor of himself. Alexandria was for many succeeding ages the centre of commerce and civilization. Alexander also visited the shrine of Jupiter Ammon, situated in the little Oasis of Siwah, and received a flattering reply to a consultation with the oracle of that deity.

**Founding of
Alexandria.**

14. After spending some time in Egypt and arranging the government of that province, Alexander yearned for further conquest, and in the year 331, B.C., again advanced into the Persian Empire, remarking that "the world no more admitted of two masters than of two suns." In the mean time Darius Codomannus had gathered an army of over 1,000,000 of men, and awaited Alexander on the plain of Gangamela, east of the Tigris, near the town of Arbela. Alexander crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, and, although he had only 47,000 men, boldly advanced to meet Darius. The Persians fought gallantly, but were finally beaten, leaving 40,000 dead on the field, and the Persian Empire

**Second attack
on Persia.**

was placed in the hands of Alexander the Great. The Greeks only lost 500 men.

Consolidating his Empire. Alexander devoted some time after his victory at Gangamela to consolidating the vast provinces he had subjugated. He also took possession of the three capitals of Persia, Babylon, Susa and Persepolis, in each of which he found im-

mense treasures, especially in Persepolis, the ancient capital of Persia Proper. While in this latter city, Alexander, in a drunken fit, caused the ancient palace of the Persian kings to be burnt, an act which he greatly regretted afterwards.

CHAPTER XXI.

HISTORY OF GREECE (Continued).

1. AFTER his defeat at Gangamela, Darius Codomannus fled to Ecbatana, the capital of Media, whither he was pursued by Alexander. Darius escaped to the mountains of Bactriana; but was assassinated by the treacherous satrap of the province, Bessus. Alexander found the dead body of Darius and gave it a magnificent funeral. The murderers afterwards fell in his hands and were put to cruel deaths.

Conquest of Scythia. 2. Alexander next conquered that portion of Central Asia, anciently known as Scythia, but now known as Tataria and Turkestan. The Macedonians suffered great privations in this campaign, and narrowly escaped starvation.

Marriage of Alexander. 3. While in Scythia Alexander married Roxana, the "Pearl of the East," a Bactrian princess, whom he had taken prisoner at the capture of a fortress. He turned his attention to civilizing the conquered provinces and founded four towns, called Alexandria, to become the centres of the caravan trade, and endeavored to introduce the customs of Greece

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into Central Asia. Alexander's great fault was intoxication, and while in Bactriana he, in a drunken fit, killed Clitus, who was an old companion, and had saved his life, because Clitus made a satirical remark while they were drinking together.

4. Alexander's desire for conquest could not be satiated; and in the year 327, B. C., he invaded India with a large army of European and Asiatic soldiers. His progress was stubbornly opposed, but he pushed his way on to the Hydaspes, a tributary to the Indus, on the opposite shore of which Porus, king of Punjab had assembled a large army. Alexander crossed the river, defeated the enemy, and took Porus prisoner.

Conquest of India.

5. When Porus was brought before Alexander he was asked how he expected to be treated. "Like a king," he replied; and the answer so pleased Alexander that he not only gave Porus his liberty, but made him Viceroy of all the Macedonian conquests in India.

Porus and Alexander.

6. Alexander founded two cities on the Hydaspes, Nicæa, "the city of Victory," and Bucephala, so-called after Alexander's famous war-horse Bucephalus, which died near the spot on which the city was founded. He then prepared to invade the fertile region of the Ganges, but his conquests were brought to a sudden termination by his soldiers refusing to go any further. He was, therefore, reluctantly compelled to return to Persia, which he reached after many hardships, and losing the greater portion of his army. He came down the Indus, and it is said that when he reached the coast and saw the vast expanse of the Indian Ocean, he sat on a rock and cried that there were no more worlds to conquer.

The limit of his conquests.

7. Alexander devoted himself on his return to Persia to the establishment of a permanent government in the

Alexander's efforts to establish a permanent Government. vast territory he had conquered. His object was to unite Macedon and Persia into one great nation, possessing the civilization of Greece. In furtherance of this object he married—the Macedonian law permitting polygamy—Statira, a daughter of the murdered king Darius Codomannus, and thousands of his officers and soldiers married Persian and Median women. His government of the people was marked by wisdom, judgment and kindness, and the Persian nobility and people loved and respected him as much as if he had been a native prince.

8. While planning new conquests, Alexander suddenly died in Babylon, at the early age of 32, from excessive drinking. He had a superstitious dread of entering Babylon on account of several prophecies that it would prove fatal to him; but he would visit it as he intended making it the capital of his new empire. He had reigned over Macedon and Greece twelve years (B. C., 324–336) and had in that brief time subjugated almost all the known world. When asked who was to be his successor, he answered "The most worthy."

Death of Alexander.

CHAPTER XXII.

HISTORY OF GREECE (*Continued*).

1. WHILE Alexander was continuing his victorious career in Asia, some of the conquered Peloponnesian States revolted from the Macedonian rule. Sparta was the leading state in the revolt; but the death of Agis II., king of Sparta, in a battle with Antipater, Alexander's viceroy, put an end to the revolt; and Antipater maintained Macedonia's supremacy all the time Alexander was in Asia.

2. The effect of Alexander's death was to cause another effort on the part of the Greek states to shake off the

Affairs in Greece during Alexander's conquests.

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Macedonian yoke. Athens took the lead in this revolt, and their General Leosthenes was at first successful. He marched suddenly into Thessaly, defeated Antipater and besieged the Macedonians in the town of Lamia. From this circumstance this *event* is known as "the Labian war." Antipater received reinforcements, defeated the Athenians, and forced them to accept the most humiliating terms. The democratic form of government was abolished in Athens; her leading orators were given up; and Macedonian garrisons were placed in all her fortresses. Demosthenes, a great democratic orator, and a violent opponent of Macedonian rule, committed suicide by poisoning to avoid being given up. As a sort of revenge for this act of Demosthenes the democratic party, when they regained ascendancy in Athens, compelled Phocion, the leader of the aristocratic party, and one of the most virtuous of men, to drink the fatal bowl of poison.

Effect of the death of Alexander.

3. As Alexander the Great had appointed no successor, many sanguinary wars occurred between his generals for the supremacy; and the great empire he had founded soon fell to pieces. For many years his generals and their successors waged war against each other, and finally the whole empire was disrupted.

4. Antipater, who had been made regent, at his death appointed Polysperchon, the oldest of Alexander's generals, to the government of Greece; but Antipater's son Cassander got up a rebellion, and, after defeating Polysperchon, usurped the government of Macedon and Greece. He then caused the mother, wife and son of Alexander to be put to death to strengthen his rule.

Murder of Alexander's family.

5. In the year 301, B. C., the battle of Ipsus in Asia Minor was fought. In this battle Antigonus, one of Alexander's generals, who had aspired to succeed him to the entire empire, was de-

Division of the Empire.

feated and killed; and the empire was afterwards divided into the four kingdoms of Macedon and Greece; Thrace and Bithynia; the Syrian empire of the Seleucidæ; and Egypt under the Ptolemies.

6. Various dissensions and internal wars occurred between the states growing out of the Alexandrine empire, until the year 280, B. C., when Macedonia was invaded by a host of barbarians known as **Invasion of the Gauls.** Gauls, under the leadership of Brennus. They ravaged Macedon; and the following year invaded Greece for the purpose of sacking the temple at Delphi. They were defeated at Thermopylæ; but a traitor showed them a secret pass, and the Greeks were obliged to retreat. The Gauls then pushed on for Delphi, but the Phocians rose against them and harassed them greatly; and when they reached Delphi, an earthquake and violent storm so aroused their superstitious fears that they retreated; and thousands of them were mercilessly slaughtered by the exasperated Greeks. Brennus their leader killed himself in despair; and the small remnant went into Asia Minor, and settled in the country called after them Galatia.

CHAPTER XXIII.

HISTORY OF GREECE (*Continued*).

1. THE next power which arose in Greece, and promised for a while to revive the old glories of the Greek republics, was the Achaian League. This at first consisted of only twelve little towns in Achaia; but in the third century before Christ many cities joined the league, under Aratus, and for a while it was supreme in Greece.

2. The Achaian League had strong enemies in the king of Macedon, the Spartans, and the **The Achaian League.** **The Achaian League.** Achaian League, which was a confederation of the rudest of the Grecian tribes, had by degrees

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extended its supremacy over Locris, Phocis, Bæotia and other states.

3. The Greek states continued quarrelling amongst themselves, and rebelling against the Macedonian rule until the second Carthaginian war, when Philip II. of Macedon assisted Carthage. To give him employment at home, the Romans induced the Ætolians and Spartans to rebel, and the Roman general Flaminius, in the year 197, B. C., totally defeated the Macedonians at the battle of Cynoscephalæ, and compelled Philip, on the conclusion of peace, to acknowledge the independence of Greece.

Appearance
of the
Romans.

4. The Romans for many years steadily pushed their advantage over Macedonia, and in the year 168, B. C., Macedonia was made a Roman Province. Advantage was afterwards taken of continued dissensions amongst the Greek states, an army was sent, under Consul Mummius to occupy them. He defeated the Achæians in many bloody battles; and, finally, in the year 146, B. C., took Corinth and razed it with the ground. This ended the independence of the Greek states; and they were formed into a Roman Province under the name of Achæia.

Greece made
a Roman
Province.

CHAPTER XXIV.

HISTORY OF ROME—ANCIENT ITALY.

1. ITALY was originally divided into three sections. Cisalpine Gaul, or Gaul this side of the Alps, in the northern part; Italy proper, in the centre; and Magna Græcia, or Great Greece in the south.

Division of
Ancient Italy.

2. Cisalpine Gaul was divided by the river Padus (Po) into two divisions; the one on the north side of that stream being called Gallia Transpadana, and the one on the south side being named

Cisalpine
Gaul.

Gallia Cispadana; Venetia was in the north-western part of Cisalpine Gaul, and Liguria in the south-western part.

3. The States of Italy proper, or Central Italy, were Etruria, Latium, Umbria, Picernum, Campania, Samnium, and its Sabine territory; Etruria was early noted **Italy proper.** for its civilization and progress in the arts and sciences. The Etruscans, or inhabitants of

Etruria, formed a confederacy of twelve towns, each of which was independent in its own domestic affairs.

4. Magna Græcia, or Great Greece, embraced the States of Apulia, Calabria, Lucania, and Brutium. The chief city of Magna Græcia was Tarentum, the people of which are famous for their luxury and wealth. Magna Græcia was early settled by the Greeks, who brought with them the arts and institutions of their native country.

5. The earliest known inhabitants of Italy were, like those of Greece, called Palasgians. The Palasgians of Italy resembled those of Greece in character and manners. They were divided into many independent tribes, and their chief occupation was agriculture. They built towns with cyclopean walls of unhammered stone. Their chief tribes were called the Etruscans, the Sabines, the Latins, the Liculi, the Cænotrians, and the Tyrrhenians. It was about 1000 years B. C., when the Greeks founded in Southern Italy the colonies which were collectively called Magna Græcia, or Great Greece. In Sicily the Greeks founded Messana, Syracuse, Agrigentum, Naxos, Catana, and other towns; Grecian colonies were also settled in Corsica and Sardinia.

CHAPTER XXV.

ROME UNDER THE KINGS—ROMULUS.

1. ACCORDING to the Roman legend, Æneas, a famous Trojan warrior, left his native country immediately after

the fall of the western city of Latinus, his own called I moved to Alba.

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the fall of Troy, and made his way to the western shores of Italy, where he founded the city of Lavinium. After slaying in battle Latinus, King of Latium, Æneas united the Latins with his own followers; and thereafter the united people were called Latins. Thirty years afterwards the Latins removed to the Alban Mount, where they built the city of Alba.

*Legend of
Mars.*

2. Several centuries after the events just related, there reigned at Alba a king named Procas, who had two sons, Numitor and Amulius. When Procas died, Numitor was to succeed to the throne of Alba; but Amulius seized the throne and made himself king, and afterwards caused the son of Numitor to be slain, and made his daughter Sylvia become a Vestal Virgin. Sylvia married Mars, the god of war, with whom she had twin sons, Romulus and Remus. Amulius ordered the two infants to be drowned in the Tiber, but the basket which contained them floated to the foot of the Palatine Hill, where they were found by a she-wolf, which carried them to her den and nursed them as her own offspring. Some time afterwards the two children were taken to the house of a shepherd on the Palatine Hill, where they were brought up. At length Remus was taken to Alba and brought before Amulius. Romulus and his friends went to Alba and rescued Remus, killed Amulius, and placed Numitor on the throne of Alba.

*Legend of
Romulus and
Remus.*

3. Romulus and Remus prepared to return to the Palatine Hill, where they resolved to build a city, and they inquired of the gods by divination which should give his name to the city. They watched the heavens for one day and one night; and, at sunrise Remus saw six vultures, and soon afterwards Romulus saw twelve. It was decided that the favor of the gods was on the side of Romulus, who accordingly began to build a city on the Palatine Hill. When

*Founding of
Rome by Ro-
mulus.*

Remus, who was mortified and angry, saw the low wall and the ditch which inclosed the new city, he scornfully leaped over and exclaimed, "Will this keep out an enemy?" Upon this insulting conduct, Remus was slain, either by Romulus or by one of his followers. The city, which was named Rome, in honor of Romulus, is thought to have been founded 753 years B. C. Rome at first contained a thousand dwellings; and its population was rapidly increased by exiles, criminals, fugitives from justice, and desperate characters of all sorts, who fled to the new city for refuge.

4. Romulus was chosen the first King of Rome, and the Senate of one hundred members was established. But

First King of Rome,--Sabine women. the Romans, as the inhabitants of the new city were called, were without wives; and as the neighboring people refused to give their

daughters in marriage to such desperate characters, Romulus determined upon securing by stratagem what he could not obtain by force. He therefore arranged some games and shows at Rome, and invited the neighboring people to attend. The Sabines and Latins came in great numbers, bringing their wives and daughters with them. When the shows began, Romulus gave a signal, whereupon the Roman youth rushed upon the unsuspecting strangers, seized the most beautiful maidens, and carried them off for wives.

5. The outrage just mentioned led to a war between the Romans and Sabines. A large army under Titus

War with the Sabines--Death of Tarpeia. Tatius, the Sabine king, laid siege to Rome. The Romans garrisoned and fortified the Capitoline Hill. Tarpeia, the daughter of the Roman commander, agreed to open the

gates of the fortress to the Sabines if they would give her the golden bracelets which they wore on their arms. She accordingly opened the gates; but as soon as the Sabines entered the fortress, they killed the traitress with their

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brazen shields. Having gained possession of the Capitoline Hill, the Sabines were able to defy the Romans for a long time.

6. Many battles were fought between the Romans and the Sabines in the valleys which divide the Capitoline and Palatine Hills; at length when the Sabines advanced near the city, the Romans retired **The Temple of Janus.** inside the city walls and shut the gates. As the Sabines were about to enter the city the gates flew open; the Romans again shut them, but they opened a second time; a mighty stream of water burst forth from the Temple of Janus and swept away the Sabines who had entered the city. Ever afterwards the gates of the Temple of Janus stood open when Rome was at war, that the gods might come out to aid the Romans; but in time of peace the gates were always closed.

7. The Romans made great efforts to retake the Capitoline Hill. At length while the two armies were combating, the Sabine wives of the Romans rushed between the contending forces and, by their earnest entreaties and supplications, induced **Union of the Romans and Sabines.** both parties to suspend hostilities. A treaty of peace followed by which the Romans and the Sabines were to be united as one nation, and Romulus and Titus Tatius were to reign jointly at Rome. Soon afterward Titus Tatius was killed at Davimium, and Romulus reigned alone thereafter.

8. After a reign of thirty-seven years, Romulus came to his death in an unknown manner. The Roman legend states that, while he was present at a public **Death of Romulus.** meeting in the Field of Mars, there arose a great tempest and whirlwind, while at the same time the sun was eclipsed, and it was as dark as night. When the storm was over, and the light of the sun returned, Romulus was not to be found. It was believed by the superstitious Romans that his father, Mars, the god of war, had carried

him to heaven in a fiery chariot. The Romans built a temple to Romulus, and worshipped him as a god by the name of Quirinus, B. C., 716.

CHAPTER XXV.

HISTORY OF ROME.

THE SUCCESSORS OF ROMULUS.

1. THE second King of Rome was the wise Sabine, Numa Pompilius, who proved to be a good and peaceful monarch.

**Peaceful
Reign of
Numa Pom-
pilius.**

He encouraged agriculture, reformed the calendar, built temples, and regulated religious affairs, professing to have obtained his directions from the goddess Egeria. Numa also divided the Roman territory equally among the people. After a peaceful and prosperous reign of forty-two years, Numa died at the age of eighty, B. C., 673.

2. The peaceful Numa Pompilius was succeeded as King of Rome by the warlike Tullus Hostilius, during whose reign the Romans engaged in a war with the Albans. Just as the armies of the Romans and the Albans were about to engage in conflict, they agreed to have the contest decided by a combat to be fought by six champions, three from each side; and the defeated nation was to become subject to the victorious one. In the Roman army there were three twin-brothers called Horatii, and in the Alban army there were three twin-brothers named Curiatii. These, being fixed upon as the champions, took their places between the two armies and engaged in combat. After two of the Horatii had fallen, the other Horatius began to flee; but suddenly turning, he fell upon the three wounded Curiatii, and killed them in succession. When the victorious Horatius returned to Rome, he met his sister Horatia, who had been betrothed to one of the Curiatii. Horatia shrieked aloud, and reproached her brother for his bloody deed, which so enraged Horatius

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that he plunged a knife into his sister's heart, and she fell dead. For this crime Horatius was condemned to death, but he was afterward pardoned because by his victory over the Curiatii he had saved the Romans from slavery. By the terms of the agreement made just before the combat, the Albans became subject to the Romans.

3. The fourth King of Rome was Ancus Martius, a grandson of Numa Pompilius. Ancus Martius carried on successful wars against the Latins, founded the town of Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber, and added the Aventine and Janiculum Hills to Rome. He reigned twenty-four years.

4. There are different accounts respecting the origin of Tarquinius Priscus, or Tarquin the Elder, the fifth King of Rome. By some his parents are said to have been of Grecian origin: by others he is regarded as of Etruscan extraction. Tarquin the Elder subdued the Latins, the Sabines, and the Etruscans; and improved Rome with many public works, among which were the circus or race-course, the embanking of the Tiber, the sewers for draining the neighboring lakes, the foundations of the walls of the city, which were of hewn stone, and the Forum, or public square. Tarquin the Elder was greatly beloved by his people, and had reigned thirty-eight years when the sons of Ancus Martius caused him to be assassinated, B. C., 579.

5. The murdered Tarquinius Priscus was succeeded on the throne of Rome by his son-in-law, Servius Tullius, who proved to be a wise and good king. He protected the poor from the oppressions of the rich, abolished enslavement for debt, and lessened the royal power. The wise legislation of Servius Tullius was displeasing to the higher orders among the Romans; and at length his son-in-law, Tarquinius Superbus, son of Tarquin the Elder, caused the good king to be murdered, and made himself King of Rome. (B. C., 535.)

The wicked Tullia, daughter of the murdered Servius Tullius, and wife of Tarquin the Proud, in her haste to congratulate her wicked husband, drove her chariot over her father's corpse, which lay in the street.

6. Tarquinius Superbus, or Tarquin the Proud, soon proved to be an unscrupulous tyrant. All classes of Romans felt his severity. The plebeians, or common people, were deprived of their privileges; and the patricians, or aristocracy, were plundered of their wealth. Tarquin the Proud conquered the Volscians and other nations.

**Tyrannical
Reign of
Tarquin.**

7. While the Romans were besieging the town of Ardea, Tarquin's sons, Sextus, Titus, and Aruns, and their cousin Collatinus, got into a dispute about the good qualities of their wives, and all agreed to visit their homes by surprise.

They found the wives of Sextus, Titus, and Aruns feasting and making merry, while Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, was found working at her loom. They all agreed that Lucretia was the worthiest lady. Sextus fell into a violent passion for Lucretia, and shortly afterwards he behaved toward her in such a manner that she committed suicide. Lucius Junius Brutus, a relative of the royal family, bound himself by an oath to avenge the wicked act of Sextus. The outrage of Sextus roused the indignation of the Roman people; and Brutus, showing them the bloody corpse of Lucretia and haranguing them, induced them to expel the royal family from the throne of Rome, and to abolish monarchy altogether. Tarquin the Proud and his family, finding themselves abandoned, retired into voluntary exile, B. C., 510.

**Expulsion of
Tarquin—
Abolition of
Monarchy.**

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CHAPTER XXVI.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC; B. C. 510-30.

WARS WITH THE ETRUSCANS AND WITH PORSENNA.

1. The overthrow of Tarquinius Superbus and the abolition of monarchy in Rome took place in the year 510, B. C. Rome then became a Republic. The Senate continued to sit, and two chief magistrates called Consuls were to be elected every year. The first Consuls were Brutus and Collatinus. During their administration, a conspiracy was formed for the restoration of Tarquin the Proud to the throne. Among the conspirators were the sons of Brutus. From feelings of pure patriotism, their father, who acted as judge when they were tried, condemned them both to death, and had them executed in his presence.

Consuls—
Conspiracy
in favor of
Tarquin the
Proud.

2. The dethroned Tarquin the Proud received aid from the Etruscans, to whose country he had fled for protection. A large Etruscan force was placed under the command of Tarquin himself and sent against the Romans. Aruns, the son of Tarquin, and Brutus encountered each other. Each ran his spear through his antagonist, and both fell dead.

War with the
Etruscans.

3. Porsenna, King of Clusium, also took the field in favor of the deposed Tarquin the Proud, and advanced against Rome with a large army. The Romans were driven across the Tiber; but the Roman army was saved by the valor of Horatius

War with
Porsenna,
King of Clu-
sium—Horo-
tius Cocles.

Cocles, who alone defended the wooden bridge that crossed the river until the Romans had all crossed, and who then cut down the bridge while the enemy's darts were flying all around him, and at last plunged into the stream and reached the opposite shore in safety.

4. At length Porsenna pressed the siege of Rome so closely that the people in the city suffered greatly from

**Mutius
Scævola.**

famine. But the city was saved by the daring conduct of a young Roman named Mutius Scævola, who penetrated into the enemy's camp for the purpose of assassinating Porsenna, but who, by mistake, killed one of the attendants of the Clusian king. When threatened with torture unless he made a confession, Mutius Scævola thrust his right hand into a fire and kept it there until it was burnt off, to show Porsenna that no torture could induce him to betray the plans of his countrymen. Porsenna, admiring such patriotism and courage, gave Scævola his liberty; when the heroic young Roman warned the Clusian king to raise the siege of Rome and make peace, as three hundred young Romans had sworn to take his life, and that he had been chosen by lot to make the first attempt. Porsenna, alarmed for his life, immediately made peace with the Romans and marched home. So says the Roman legend; but other accounts say that Porsenna reduced Rome, and that the Romans afterwards recovered their independence.

CHAPTER XXVII.

HISTORY OF ROME (*Continued.*)

CONTESTS OF THE PATRICIANS AND THE PLEBEIANS.

1. As soon as Rome was relieved from the hostility of foreign foes, the city began to be distracted by domestic troubles. The two great parties into which the Romans were divided were the patricians, or aristocracy, and the plebeians, or common people. The patricians, having all power in their own hands, now began to exercise the most unmitigated tyranny over the plebeians, who were excluded from all the public offices. Having exempted themselves from the payment of tithes, the patricians soon became immensely

**Tyranny of
the Patri-
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wealthy; while the plebeians were compelled to pay taxes for the little farms they held in possession, and to perform military service with the army. In time of war the lands of the plebeians were left uncultivated and their dwellings were often burned by the enemy. They consequently became very poor, and incurred debts with the patricians which it was impossible for them to discharge under the existing state of things. If a plebeian failed to discharge his debts when they became due his estate was seized; and he and his whole family became slaves to his creditor, and were thrown into prison and maltreated.

2. The evils already related at length resulted in a general insurrection of the plebeians. An old man, covered with rags, pale and famishing, having escaped from his creditor's prison, rushed into the Forum, or public square of Rome, and implored the aid of the people. He showed them the scars of the wounds which he had received in twenty-eight battles with the enemies of Rome. He was immediately recognized as a brave old captain in the army. He related to them that his house had been burned by the enemy in the Etruscan war, and that his taxes were nevertheless rigorously exacted from him. He had been obliged to borrow money, and finally he had lost all his property; and when it became impossible for him to discharge his debts, he and his two sons were enslaved by his creditor. He also showed them the marks of the stripes which had been inflicted upon him by his creditor. The plebeians could not now restrain their rage and indignation. They demanded relief. At this instant, news arrived at Rome that the Volscians had taken up arms against the Romans. The plebeians rejoiced at this intelligence: they refused to enlist in the army, and told the patricians to fight their own battles. As the plebeians could not be compelled to enlist, the Consuls promised them relief, whereupon many of them joined the ranks; but no sooner were the Vols-

**Insurrection
of the Ple-
beians.**



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cians defeated than the debtors were ordered back to their prisons. Having been afterwards deceived, the plebeians withdrew from Rome and took post on the Sacred Mount, about three miles from the city, where they resolved to resist the patricians.

3. To avoid the horrors of civil war, the patricians dispatched ten senators, with Menenius Agrippa at their head, to treat with the plebeians, and to induce them to return to Rome. Agrippa represented to them the disadvantages of dissensions in a state, and related to them the fable of the quarrel between the stomach and the members. The members, complaining that the stomach remained idle and enjoyed itself, refused to labor for it any longer; the hands refused to put food to the mouth; the mouth refused to open; and the teeth refused to chew; but while they thus attempted to starve the stomach they starved themselves, and at last they discovered that the stomach was as useful to the body as they were themselves. The plebeians understood the moral of the fable, and they agreed to a treaty with the patricians. By this treaty all existing debts were cancelled, and all persons held in bondage for debt received their freedom. The insurgent plebeians then returned to Rome. It was also agreed that five magistrates, called Tribunes, should be elected annually to watch over their interests, and to prevent by the word "veto," meaning "I forbid," any measure which endangered the rights and liberties of the Roman people.

4. When, during a famine in Rome, a supply of corn arrived from Sicily, the haughty patrician, Caius Marcius Coriolanus, proposed that none should be given to the plebeians until they consented to have the office of Tribunes abolished. This proposal aroused the indignation of the plebeians, and they procured the banishment of Coriolanus. Enraged at this treatment, Coriolanus went to the Volscians; and afterwards he led

**Banishment
of Coriolanus
—Veturia and
Volturnia.**

a Volscian army against Rome, and laid siege to the city; but he was finally induced to retreat from Rome by the entreaties of his wife, Veturia, and his mother, Volumnia, who had gone out of the city, at the head of a deputation of Roman ladies, to persuade Coriolanus not to be the cause of the ruin of his country. Coriolanus, yielding to the solicitations of his mother, exclaimed, "Mother, you have saved Rome, but you have ruined your son!" It is said that the Volscians, enraged at the retreat of Coriolanus from Rome, put him to death; but a tradition states he lived to a great age in exile among the Volscians, and that he was often heard to exclaim, "How miserable is the condition of an old man in banishment!"

5. The Æquians, having broken their peace with Rome and having formed a camp on Mount Algidus, lured an army of Romans into a narrow defile, where ^{Dictatorship of Cincinnatus—Mount Algidus.} they must have been taken prisoners had not the patrician Lucius Quintus Cincinnatus, after having been appointed Dictator, come to their relief. The Dictator was an officer superior to the Consuls and the Senate, and he had all power over the laws themselves. When the deputies of the Senate came to inform Cincinnatus that he had been appointed Dictator, they found him ploughing in his field. He immediately left his plough, took command of the army, and marched against the enemy; and, having surrounded them, compelled them to surrender to the Romans. At the end of sixteen days, Cincinnatus resigned the dictatorship and returned to his plough.

6. The contests between the patricians and the plebeians still continued. At length the number of Tribunes was increased from five to ten; and the Senate was compelled to agree to the appointment, ^{The Decemvirs.} for one year, of ten Senators, called Decemvirs, to frame a code of laws for Rome. After much labor, the Decemvirs produced the "Laws of the Twelve Tables."

The Decemvirs had discharged their duties so well that it was agreed to continue them in office for another year, to enable them to finish their work; but they soon began to make additions to the Laws of the Twelve Tables by which the plebeians were greatly oppressed, and it became evident that they were laboring altogether in the interest of the patricians; and great discontent ensued in consequence.

7. A licentious outrage now occurred in Rome which led to the overthrow of the power of the Decemvirs. Appius Claudius, a leading Decemvir, had conceived a strong passion for the beautiful Virginia, the daughter of the plebeian Virginus. In order to secure possession of the person of Virginia, Appius Claudius bribed one of his adherents to claim her as one of his runaway slaves. She was brought before the judgment seat of Appius himself, who ordered her to be given up to the claimant. Just at that moment, Virginia's father, to save his daughter from slavery and disgrace, rushed forward and plunged a knife into her heart. The indignation of the Roman people was aroused by this outrage; and the plebeians, supported by the army, overthrew the power of the Decemvirs and restored the old government. The affrighted Appius Claudius was thrown into prison, where he put an end to his own life. Many new privileges were then granted to the plebeians. The law which prohibited marriages between persons of the two classes was repealed. Military Tribunes, with the power of Consuls, were chosen from the plebeians; while two officers, called Censors, were elected from the patricians to take the census once in every five years.

Appius Claudius and Virginia - Privileges of the Plebeians.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

HISTORY OF ROME (*Continued*).

CONQUEST OF VEII AND INVASION OF THE GAULS.

1. THE Etruscan city of Veii had long been one of the most formidable enemies of Rome; and when the people of Veii had slain the Roman ambassadors and refused to give satisfaction for the outrage, the Romans resolved upon the subjugation of the hostile city. After a siege of ten years, Veii surrendered to the Roman army commanded by the patrician Camillus. The captured city was plundered, and its inhabitants were reduced to slavery. Having incurred the hatred of the plebeians by his unequal distribution of the plunder of the conquered city, Camillus was banished from Rome.

*Siege and
Capture of
Veii.*

2. Rome was now threatened by a more powerful enemy than she had ever before encountered. This enemy was the Gauls, who had crossed the Alps into Northern Italy, or Cisalpine Gaul. These barbarians were the inhabitants of the country then called Gaul (now France). According to tradition, a citizen of the Etruscan city of Clusium, having been refused redress from the magistrates of that city for an injury which he had received from one of the chief men of the city, resolved to have revenge on his country. He crossed the Alps into Gaul, taking with him a large quantity of the wines and fruits of Italy. Seeing that the barbarian Gauls were very much pleased with these presents, the injured Clusian invited them to go with him into Italy and take possession of the country which produced these delicacies. Immediately an immense horde of Gauls, taking with them their women and children, crossed the Alps into Italy, and marched to Clusium, to which they laid siege. The people of Clusium applied for aid to the Romans, who thereupon sent ambassadors to induce the Gauls to withdraw from Italy.

*Invasion of
Italy by the
Gauls.*

3. The Roman ambassadors, having failed in the object of their mission, joined the Clusians in an attack on the Gauls, and killed one of the Gallic chiefs. Brennus, the king of the Gauls, demanded satisfaction from the Roman Senate for the conduct of the ambassadors, and when his demand was rejected, he took up his march, with 70,000 of his followers, directly for Rome.

4. On the banks of the river Allia, eleven miles from Rome, a great battle was fought, in which the Roman army, consisting of 40,000 men, was hopelessly annihilated. This defeat rendered it impossible to defend the city, but 1,000 Romans garrisoned the capitol, which they resolved to defend to the last extremity, while the greater number of the inhabitants of Rome fled for refuge to the neighboring towns. About eighty priests and patricians, resolving never to survive the ruin of their city, clothed themselves in their long robes and awaited death. When the Gauls entered Rome they found the city deserted, and a death-like silence prevailed; but when they entered the Forum, where sat the aged Senators, they were seized with superstitious awe at the sight of those venerable persons, whom they imagined to be divinities. At length one of the Gauls seized hold of the white beard of Marcus Papirius, one of the Senators; the old man, enraged at this insult, struck the insolent barbarian with his ivory staff; whereupon the Gauls massacred the Senators, and set fire to Rome, which, with the exception of the Capitol and a few houses on the Palatine Hill, was totally reduced to ashes.

5. The Gauls vainly attempted to obtain possession of the Capitol. They endeavored to climb up the steep ascent in the night, and would have succeeded had not the noise of the sacred geese in the Temple of Juno awoken Marcus Manlius, who imme-

Battle on the Allia - Rome Taken and burned by the Gauls.

Defense of the Capitol.

diately hastened to the spot and hurled down the rocky precipice such of the Gauls as attempted to make their way inside the walls of the Capitol.

6. When famine began to prey upon the Romans who garrisoned the Capitol, and sickness was rapidly reducing the numbers of the Gauls, Brennus, the Gallic chief, agreed to abandon Rome and its territory on condition of receiving a thousand pounds of gold.

**Departure of
the Gauls
from Rome.**

While the gold was being weighed, the banished patrician Camillus arrived with an army for the relief of the garrison, and ordered the gold to be taken back to the Capitol, saying, "It has ever been the custom of us Romans to ransom our country, not with gold, but with iron." A battle followed, and the Gauls were driven from Rome. The Gallic leader, Brennus, was soon afterward taken prisoner by the Romans and put to death. So says the Roman legend concerning the retreat of the Gauls from Rome; but according to a more probable account the Gauls were recalled by a sudden invasion of their own country by the Venetians.

7. As Rome was now a heap of ruins, the Roman people contemplated emigrating to Veii; but the persuasion of Camillus, who appealed to their patriotism and exhorted them not to abandon the spot which had been chosen by Romulus, and a fortunate omen, induced them to remain and rebuild their city.

**Rebuilding
of Rome.**

8. After the city of Rome had been rebuilt, the patricians again began to oppress the plebeians. The patrician Marcus Manlius Capitolinus, the brave defender of the Capitol, came forward as the champion of the oppressed plebeians. He paid the debts of helpless creditors and did all in his power to alleviate their condition. Having incurred the hatred of his fellow-patricians, he was thrown into prison, but was released at the demands of the plebeians.

**Condemna-
tion and
Death of
Marcus
Manlius.**

Being afterward accused by the patricians of aspiring to the sovereignty of Rome, Manlius was condemned to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian Rock, the place of his former glory. After the death of Marcus Manlius, the patricians oppressed the plebeians more rigorously than ever before.

9. Rome was now saved from oligarchical rule by two remarkable men.—Lucius Sextius Lateranus and Caius Licinius Stolo.—Tribunes of the People. Licinius proposed three laws for the guaranty of the rights and liberties of the plebeians: the first opened the office of Consul to the plebeians; the second prohibited any person from holding more than five hundred acres of the public land, the remainder to be distributed among the plebeians as their own property; the third provided that the interest already paid upon debts should be deducted from the capital sum in making payment, and the remainder to be paid in three years.

10. The patricians resisted the passage of the Laws of Licinius for five years, and tried every means of violence and fraud to frustrate the noble designs of Licinius Stolo; but when the plebeians took up arms for their rights, and gathered together on the Aventine Hill, the Senate, in order to avoid the horrors of the civil war, found itself obliged to sanction the three Licinian Laws, amended only by the provision that the judicial functions, which had before been exercised by the Consuls, should devolve upon an officer called Prætor, to be chosen from the patricians; but in less than half a century, both the prætorship and the dictatorship were open to the plebeians.

**Opposition
of the patri-
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CHAPTER XXIX.

HISTORY OF ROME—WARS WITH THE SAMNITES
AND LATIN.

1. THE ambition of the Romans soon involved them in a war with the Samnites, a powerful Italian nation to the south-east of Rome. The inhabitants of Capua and Campania obtained assistance from the Romans against the Samnites. **First Samnite War.** The Romans defeated the Samnites in two sanguinary engagements. After the war had continued for two years a treaty of peace and alliance was made between the Romans and the Samnites.

2. The Romans next turned their arms against their former allies, the Latins, who had vainly demanded of the Romans certain privileges. When the Roman and Latin armies faced each other, the Roman general, Manlius, forbade any soldier in his army leaving his ranks; and when his own son, Titus Manlius, went forward at the challenge of the Latin general, and slew him in single combat, the stern father punished his son with death for disobedience of command. **The Latin War—Manlius Devotion of Decius.** The battle of Vesuvius was decided in favor of the Romans. Before the battle had begun, the augurs had foretold that the victory would be on the side of the Romans if the commander of that portion of the Roman army which was hard pressed would sacrifice himself for his country. The portion commanded by Decius being hard pressed, that commander clothed himself in a large robe, plunged into the thickest of the fight, and was slain. The result of this war was that the Latins were conquered, and their territory, Latium, was annexed to the Roman territories.

3. Jealousies between the Romans and the Samnites led to another war between those two nations. The first

**Second Samnite War—
The Caudine Forks.** part of this war was signalized by several Roman victories; but at length the Samnite general Pontius, after having lured the Roman army, commanded by the two Consuls, into a narrow defile called the Caudine Forks, surrounded them with his troops and obliged them to surrender themselves prisoners of war. After undergoing the humiliation of passing under a yoke formed of three spears, and agreeing to a peace by which all the territory which had belonged to the Samnites before the war was restored to them, the defeated Romans were allowed to return home. Pontius kept six hundred Roman knights as hostages for the fulfilment of the provisions of the treaty.

4. As soon as intelligence of the humiliating peace with the Samnites reached Rome, the Roman Senate declared the treaty null and void, and ordered the two Consuls, who had negotiated the treaty, to be given up to the Samnites as persons who had deceived them. In vain did Pontius ask that the treaty be faithfully kept, or that the whole Roman army should again be surrendered to him. The noble Samnite general refused to wreak his vengeance on the two Roman Consuls and, with unusual magnanimity, he restored the six hundred hostages. Then began the third war between the Romans and the Samnites. This war lasted thirty years, and ended in the complete subjugation of the Samnites and their allies, the Umbrians, the Etruscans, and the Cisalpine Gauls. The old Samnite general, Pontius, was taken prisoner; and, after gracing the triumph of the Roman general, he was put to death by order of the Roman Senate. All of Samnium then became a Roman province, B. C., 291.

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CHAPTER. XXX.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE WAR WITH PYRRHUS.

1. THE ambition of the Romans next involved them in a war with Tarentum, a luxurious and wealthy Grecian city of Southern Italy. The effeminate and cowardly Tarentines applied for assistance to Pyrrhus, King of Epirus. Pyrrhus, who was desirous of being a great conqueror, agreed to protect the Tarentines from Roman aggression, and landed in Southern Italy with an army of 30,000 men and twenty elephants, the first of those animals ever seen in Italy.

War with the
Tarentines
—War with
King of
Epirus.

2. At length a great battle was fought, in which Pyrrhus was seven times repulsed by the Roman Consul Lævinus; but when he brought his elephants into the field, the Romans were routed with frightful slaughter, and Pyrrhus obtained the victory. While viewing the sanguinary field the next day Pyrrhus exclaimed, "Had I such soldiers as the Romans, the world would be mine, or had they such a general as I the world would be theirs!" Pyrrhus then attempted to make peace, and for this purpose he sent to Rome his friend Cineas, the orator. Pyrrhus often said that he won more victories by the eloquence of Cineas than by the swords of his soldiers. The Romans refused to make peace; and Cineas returned and informed Pyrrhus that Rome looked like a great temple, and the Senate like an assembly of kings. A second battle was fought, and Pyrrhus was again victorious, but at such a fearful cost that he exclaimed, "Another such victory, and I am undone!"

Victories of
Pyrrhus.

3. While the two armies were preparing for a third battle, a letter was brought to Fabricius, the Roman general

Noble conduct of Fabricius. from the physician of Pyrrhus, offering, for a large bribe, to poison the King of Epirus.

Fabricius was very indignant at such a proposal and he informed Pyrrhus of the treacherous conduct of his physician. Amazed at the magnanimity of his enemy, Pyrrhus exclaimed, "It would be easier to turn the sun from his course than Fabricius from the path of honor!" In gratitude for the noble conduct of the Roman general, Pyrrhus immediately released all the Romans whom he had taken prisoners, and sent them home rich with presents.

4. Pyrrhus now went over into Sicily to assist the Syracusans in their war against the Carthaginians; but he returned to Italy three years afterwards, and **Defeat of Pyrrhus—Fall of Tarentum.** fought a great battle with the Roman Consul Curius Dentatus. In this battle Pyrrhus was so thoroughly defeated, and his army was so hopelessly shattered, that he immediately evacuated Italy and retired to his own kingdom of Epirus. Tarentum soon afterwards fell into the hands of the Romans, who soon established their authority over all Italy, from Cisalpine Gaul on the north to the straits of Messina on the south.

CHAPTER XXXI.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE FIRST PUNIC WAR, B. C., 263-240.

1. ROME now became involved in a war with Carthage, a powerful city founded by the Phœnicians in the ninth century before Christ. Carthage was at this time a more powerful republic than Rome. Its **Carthage.** colonies and territorial possessions lined the northern coasts of Africa, from the Pillars of Hercules to the borders of Egypt. The Carthaginians were a great commercial and maritime people, and their navy, at this time, ruled the seas.

2. In the year, 264, B. C., Hiero, King of Syracuse, united with the Carthaginians in a war against the Mam-

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ertines, a powerful band of Italian mercenaries, who, by fraud and injustice, had seized the city of Messina. The Mamertines, on the other hand, obtained the assistance of the Romans, who had long wished for an opportunity of meddling in the affairs of Sicily.

3. The first war between Rome and Carthage, or the first Punic War, as it is called, commenced in the year 263, B. C., when a large Roman army under the Consul Claudius landed in Sicily. The Romans soon took possession of Messina, and induced Hiero, King of Syracuse, to desert the Carthaginians and to enter into an alliance with Rome. Being reduced to great extremities, the Carthaginians fortified the city of Agrigentum, which was soon besieged and captured by the Romans. B. C., 262.

4. While the Romans were making themselves masters of Sicily, a Carthaginian fleet of sixty ships devastated the coasts of Italy. The Romans were now impressed with the necessity of creating a navy, but they did not know how to build ships. At length a Carthaginian vessel was blown by a storm to the Italian coast; and this served as a model. A Roman fleet of 160 ships was built in sixty days. As the Romans had no naval experience, they invented a machine for grappling the enemy's vessels with their own, and thus enable them to board the enemy's ships and fight as on land.

5. In the first naval fight the Romans destroyed sixty Carthaginian vessels without the loss of a single ship of their own, B. C., 260. Four years later, B. C., 256, a Roman fleet of 360 ships, commanded by the Consuls, Regulus and Manlius, defeated the Carthaginian fleet of 350 ships under the command of Hanno and Hamilcar Barcas; off the coast of Africa; the Romans sinking thirty of their enemies' vessels and capturing sixty.

6. The Roman army under the Consul Regulus next invaded Africa, and, after storming Clypea, subduing Tunis, and capturing seventy-five towns, devastated the country to the walls of Carthage.

Roman conquests and defeats. The Carthaginians now became alarmed, and sued for peace; but as the conditions which Regulus demanded were too humiliating for them, they resolved to continue the war. Fortunately for the Carthaginians at this moment, the Spartan general Xantippus was placed at the head of their army. Xantippus fought a terrible battle with the Romans and destroyed the greater part of their army. Only 2,000 Romans escaped from the field; and Regulus himself was taken prisoner. (B. C., 255.)

7. A Roman fleet which was laden with spoils taken from the enemy, while on its return voyage, was destroyed by a storm. Another Roman fleet, consisting of 150 ships, shared the same fate; every vessel being swallowed up by the waves. The Carthaginians again became masters of the seas.

Two Roman fleets destroyed by storms. 8. In Sicily, the Roman general Metellus defeated the Carthaginians in a great battle near Panormus (now Palermo); 20,000 Carthaginians being killed, and more than 100 of their elephants being captured. (B. C., 250.) Soon after the battle of Panormus, the Carthaginians, weary of the contest with Rome, took Regulus from his prison and sent him on an embassy to Rome for the purpose of bringing about a peace, making him first swear that in case the negotiations for peace should fail he would return to his dungeon in Carthage. The stern Regulus induced the Roman Senate to reject the peace propositions, and to continue the war. Bound by his oath, he went back to his dungeon in Carthage.

Battle of Panormus—Embassy of Regulus. 9. It is said that after the return of Regulus to Carthage, the Carthaginians, enraged at his conduct in

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breaking off the negotiations for peace, cruelly tortured him to death. After cutting off his **Death of Regulus.** eye-lids and putting him into a dark dungeon, they exposed his naked eyes to the burning sun, and then put him into a cask set all around with sharp spikes, where he died in agony. This story is believed to have been invented by the Romans to fire their soldiers with deadly hatred against the Carthaginians; and there are good reasons for believing that Regulus died a natural death.

10. Several great naval victories were afterwards won by the Romans, but several more of their fleets were destroyed by storms. After the First Punic War had continued for a period of twenty- **End of the first Punic War.** four years, peace was made. (B. C., 240.) By the terms of the treaty, the Carthaginians were to evacuate Sicily, to pay 3,200 talents of silver to defray Rome's expenses in the war, and to deliver up all prisoners and deserters without ransom. Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica soon afterward became Roman provinces.

11. The Romans next engaged in a war with the piratical Illyrians, on the eastern shores of the Adriatic sea. Roman ambassadors were sent to the Illyrian queen to complain of the piracies committed **War with the Illyrians.** by her subjects on the Italian coasts. The Illyrian queen refused to put a stop to what she considered the rights of her subjects, and caused the Roman ambassadors to be put to death. The war which ensued ended in the humiliation of the Illyrians; and the greater part of their country became tributary to Rome. (B. C., 228.)

12. The Romans were obliged next to turn their arms against the Cisalpine Gauls, who had made a sudden irruption into Etruria and advanced as far as Clusium. The war lasted four years, and was **War with the Cisalpine Gauls.** ended by a great victory gained over the Gauls by the Roman Consul Claudius Marcellus; the

Gaulic chief, Viridomarus, and 40,000 of his followers being slain. (B. C. 222.) Cisalpine Gaul then became a Roman province.

CHAPTER XXXII.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE SECOND PUNIC WAR, B. C. 218–201.

1. THE Romans next engaged in a second war with Carthage. After the First Punic War, the Carthaginians were employed in making conquests in Spain, where they intended to form a province which should compensate for the loss of Sicily. They established the city of Carthage, or New Carthage, on the southern coast of Spain. At length the Carthaginian army, under the famous general, Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar Barca, laid siege to the Greek city of Saguntum, which was in alliance with Rome. When only nine years old, Hannibal had been induced by his father to swear eternal hatred against the Romans. He took Saguntum after a siege of eight months. (B. C., 219.)

2. The Roman Senate sent an embassy to Carthage to demand that Hannibal and his army should be delivered up for having trespassed on Roman territory, and thus violated the peace; and when this unreasonable demand was not complied with, war was declared against the Carthaginians. Thus began the Second Punic War, B. C., 218.

3. In the spring of the year 218, B. C., Hannibal crossed the Ebro, and after conquering the wild tribes in that vicinity, he crossed the Pyrenees with 60,000 men and thirty-seven elephants, and marched through Southern Gaul toward the Alps, while his brother Hasdrubal held Spain in subjection to Carthaginian sway. After some resistance from the Gauls, and after forcing a passage through South Gaul and over the Rhone, Hannibal began his famous passage

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of the Alps. Difficulties almost insurmountable were encountered and overcome before the Carthaginian army appeared on the rich plains of Northern Italy. The savage Gauls attacked the Carthaginian soldiers with fury, and destroyed many of them while ascending the precipitous, snow-capped and cloud-capped mountains. When the Carthaginian soldiers reached the summit of the Alps, a great fall of snow increased their difficulties by shutting up the paths. Many of the Carthaginians lost their way, and great numbers fell down the rocky precipices and were killed. Finally the Carthaginians found their march impeded by a large rock, which, by heating and quenching with vinegar, they split into fragments; after which they continued their march, and at length appeared on the Italian plains, south of the mountains. During this dangerous passage of the Alps, which occupied fifteen days, Hannibal lost one-half of his army, from hunger, cold, fatigue, and conflicts with the fierce natives. Many of the elephants and horses had perished.

4. When intelligence of Hannibal's invasion of Italy reached Rome, the Consul Publius Scipio was sent with an army against the invaders. In a battle on the banks of the river Ticinus, Hannibal defeated the Romans and drove them back with heavy loss. Scipio himself was wounded. Hannibal next defeated another Roman army under the Consul Sempronius, on the banks of the river Trebia. The Romans lost 26,000 men, killed, wounded, or drowned in the Trebia; and only 10,000 survived and succeeded in fighting their way through the ranks of their victorious foe. In a battle fought at Placentia, Hannibal again defeated the Romans.

5. After a short rest in Liguria, Hannibal crossed the Apennines and marched southward, devastating the country through which he passed. After artfully decoying the Roman army under the Consul Flaminius into an unfavorable posi-

**Battles of Ti-
cinus, Trebia,
and Placen-
tia.**

**Battle of
Thrasimene.**

tion near Lake Thrasimenus, and favored by a thick fog, Hannibal fell upon the surprised and unexpectant Romans, and inflicted upon them a disastrous defeat. Flaminius himself was killed, and 50,000 of his men were slain, or drowned in the lake, and 6,000 were made prisoners. (B. C., 217.) While this great battle was in progress a terrible earthquake took place, which, though it destroyed many cities and towns, overturned mountains, and stopped rivers in their courses, was unnoticed by the combatants.

6. The Roman disaster of Thrasimenus quite overwhelmed the people of Rome; but the Senate, unmoved **Policy of Fabius Maximus, and Hannibal.** and resolute, appointed Fabius Maximus Dictator. Fabius pursued a new and cautious policy, and was in consequence called the Delayer. By closely following the enemy, fatiguing and harassing them, by turning every wrong movement of theirs to his own advantage, and by avoiding decisive battles, Fabius so reduced the strength of the Carthaginians that Hannibal only saved his army from total destruction by driving 2,000 oxen, with bundles of lighted brushwood fastened to their horns, up the heights occupied by the Romans, who, struck with consternation, fled, thus enabling the Carthaginian general to escape with his weakened army.

7. The Roman people, anxious for a great and decisive battle, were dissatisfied with the slow and cautious mode of warfare pursued by Fabius Maximus. In **Battle of Cannæ.** the year 216, B. C., one of the Roman Consuls, Terentius Varro, with 90,000 men, contrary to the advice of Paulus Æmilius, the other Consul, engaged in a great battle, at Cannæ, in Apulia, with Hannibal, who then had 60,000 men. The Romans suffered so frightful a defeat that the very existence of Rome was in danger; and the number of slain on the side of the Romans amounted to 50,000 men, among whom were so many knights that Hannibal sent to Carthage three

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buskels of rings stripped from their fingers. The Consul Paulus Æmilius was killed. The other Consul, Terentius Varro, fled with a few horse. This catastrophe, the greatest ever experienced by the Romans, created consternation and grief at Rome; but the courageous Senate remained as firm and immovable as ever.

8. Instead of marching directly upon Rome after his great victory at Cannæ, Hannibal led his army into winter quarters in the rich and luxurious city of Capua, in Campania, where his veteran soldiers, **Hannibal at Capua.** giving themselves up to pleasure and debauchery, became effeminate and lost all their love for war.

9. After the battle of Cannæ, many of the towns of Southern Italy and Sicily revolted against the Romans. Syracuse, which was for a long time defended by the mechanical skill of the great philosopher and mathematician Archimedes, **Fall of Syracuse.** surrendered to the Roman general Marcellus, in the year 212, B. C. The revenge of the Romans was terrible: the inhabitants of the conquered city were slaughtered; Archimedes was killed at his studies; the works of art were carried to Rome; and the prosperity of Syracuse was forever at an end.

10. Capua, which, like Syracuse, had revolted against the Romans, was besieged by several Roman legions, and Hannibal advanced toward Rome, in the hope of raising the siege of Capua; but he was **Reduction of Capua.** forced to retreat, and Capua, reduced by famine, was compelled to surrender to the Romans. Twenty-seven Capuan senators died by their own hands, and fifty-three by the axe of the executioner; and the citizens of Capua were reduced to slavery, and the treasures of the unfortunate city were sent to Rome. (B. C., 211).

11. Two years after the fall of Capua (B. C., 209), Tarentum was taken by the Romans under Fabius Maximus, who reduced the citizens to slavery and took posses-

Fall of Tar-
entum. sion of the treasures of the captured city. All the towns of Southern Italy and Sicily which had revolted against the Romans soon returned to their allegiance.

Scipio's cam-
paign in
Spain. 12. While the war was thus raging in Italy, fortune was averse to the Romans in Spain, where two large Roman armies had been cut to pieces by the Carthaginians; but after the youthful Cornelius Scipio had been placed in command of the Roman forces in Spain the fortune of the war underwent an entire change; and the Carthaginians, under the command of Hasdrubal, Hannibal's brother, were reduced to great extremities, and the supremacy of the Romans was re-established in Spain. On his return to Rome, Cornelius Scipio was made Consul, being then only twenty-nine years old.

Hasdrubal's
march to Italy
—Battle of the
Metaurus. 13. Hannibal was at length reduced to such straits in Southern Italy that he found himself obliged to summon his brother Hasdrubal from Spain to his assistance. Hasdrubal succeeded in crossing the Pyrenees and the Alps without much opposition; but on the banks of the river Metaurus his army of more than 60,000 men was defeated and destroyed by the Roman army of 45,000 men, commanded by the Consuls Livius and Claudius Nero. The carnage was frightful. The killed on the side of the Carthaginians numbered 56,000, among whom was Hasdrubal himself. (B. C. 207.) The bloody head of Hasdrubal was thrown into the camp of Hannibal, who thereupon exclaimed, "I see the doom of Carthage!"

Scipio's inva-
sion of Africa.
Hannibal's
return to Af-
rica. 14. At length, in the year 202, B. C., the Roman Consul, Cornelius Scipio, the conqueror of Spain, invaded Africa with a large army, whereupon Massinissa, King of Numidia (now Algeria), entered into an alliance with the Romans. Utica was besieged by the Romans, Tunis opened

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its gates to the invaders, whereupon the Carthaginian Senate, greatly alarmed for the safety of Carthage itself, recalled Hannibal from Italy for the defence of his own country. (B. C., 202.) After returning to Africa, Hannibal held a conference with Scipio for the purpose of making peace, but the inflexible Roman general refused to accept anything but unconditional submission on the part of Carthage, and consequently the attempt at reconciliation failed.

15. In the terrible battle of Zama, which followed the unsuccessful attempt at peace, Hannibal was defeated with the loss of 20,000 men killed, and as many **Battle of Zama—Close of the Second Punic War.** taken prisoners. Peace was then concluded; Carthage being required to give up all her foreign possessions outside of Africa, to pay 10,000 talents of silver to Rome in fifty years, to keep no more elephants for war in future, and to restore to the King of Numidia all the territory which she had wrested from him. Thus ended the Second Punic War, after a continuance of seventeen years. (B. C., 201.) Scipio, thereafter called Africanus, on his return to Rome, was honored with a most splendid triumph; while Hannibal was forced to retire into exile.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

HISTORY OF ROME—MACEDONIAN, SYRIAN, AND GRECIAN WARS.

1. No sooner had the Second Punic War ended than the Athenians applied to the Romans for protection against King Philip II. of Macedon. As Philip had **War with Philip II. of Macedon—Battle of Cynoscephale.** entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians against the Romans in the Second Punic War, and as the Romans had long wished for an opportunity of meddling in the affairs of Greece, the request of the Athenians was readily granted. War was declared against the King of Macedon; and in the year

197 B. C., the Roman general Quintus Flaminius, who had been sent into Greece with a large army, inflicted an irretrievable defeat upon the Macedonian king in the battle of Cynoscephalæ, in Thessaly. Philip was obliged to accept a peace by which he was to pay to the Romans 10,000 talents and to acknowledge the independence of Greece. To gratify the vanity of the Greeks, Flaminius, at the Isthmian Games, proclaimed the liberation of Greece from Macedonian oppression; but the Romans were as anxious to extend their supremacy over Greece as the Macedonian king had been to maintain his dominion there.

2. A few years after the defeat of Philip II. of Macedon, the Ætolians solicited aid from King Antiochus the Great **War with Antiochus the Great of Syria—Battle of Magnesia.** of Syria against the Romans. Antiochus marched into Greece with a powerful army; but was compelled to retreat into Asia Minor, whither he was pursued by the Roman army commanded by Cornelius Scipio Africanus and his brother. After sustaining a frightful defeat in the great battle of Magnesia, near Ephesus, from the Scipios, the King of Syria was forced to accept a peace by which he gave up to the Romans all his territories in Europe and a large portion of those in Asia Minor, to pay to the Romans 50,000 Eubœan talents (a sum equal to \$15,000,000), and to deliver up Hannibal, who was then living in exile at his court.

3. To avoid falling into the hands of the Romans, Hannibal fled to the court of Prusias, King of Bithynia.

Death of Hannibal and Scipio Africanus. When Prusias, fearing to incur the hostility of the Romans, was about to yield to their demand to surrender Hannibal into their hands, the old Carthaginian general put an end to his own life by swallowing poison. (B. C., 183). His great rival and conqueror Scipio Africanus, who, having been treated with ingratitude by his own countrymen, spent his last days in voluntary exile, died the same year. The valiant Philopœmen, the second chieftain of the Achaian League,

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4. The wicked Perseus, the son and successor of Philip II. of Macedon, began a fresh war against the Romans. The Macedonian territories were again invaded; and Perseus suffered a crushing defeat from the Roman general Paulus Æmilius in the battle of Pydna. (B. C., 168.) Perseus

War with
Perseus,
King of
Macedon—
Battle of
Pydna.

was afterwards taken prisoner and carried to Rome to grace the triumph of his conqueror; and Macedonia became a Roman province. The Achaïans were charged with having given assistance to Perseus, and 1,000 of their chiefs were taken to Rome to answer for their conduct before a Roman tribunal.

5. Twenty years after the fall of Perseus, the Macedonians revolted: but they were again speedily subdued by the Romans. At the same time the Achaïan League took up arms to defend the independence of Greece, which was threatened by the Romans. The Achaïans lost several battles; and finally, the Roman Consul Mummius took the city of Corinth by storm and reduced it to ashes. The whole of Greece then became a Roman province under the name of Achaia. B. C., 146. Thus ended the independent existence of the celebrated commonwealths of Ancient Greece,—victims to Roman ambition.

Conquest of
Greece by the
Romans—
Destruction
of Corinth.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE THIRD PUNIC WAR, B. C., 149-146.

1. THE same year that Greece yielded to Roman sway (B. C., 146), Carthage was destroyed by the Romans. After the second Punic War, Carthage recovered some of her former prosperity, thus awakening the jealousy of the Romans. Carthage was disposed to remain at peace, but the

Origin of the
Third Punic
War—De-
mands of the
Romans.

repeated encroachments on their territory by Massinissa, King of Numidia, induced the Carthaginians at length to take up arms to defend their own possessions. The Roman Senate had long been seeking a pretext for war. The elder Cato had made a practice of concluding all his speeches in the Senate, with the sentence, "Delenda est Carthago," "Carthage must be destroyed." The Senate, pretending to regard the conduct of Carthage in defending her own territories against Massinissa as a breach of the peace, declared war. The Carthaginians were alarmed, and gave up three hundred noble Carthaginian children as hostages, at the demand of the Romans. The Roman army then crossed over into Africa. The Carthaginians were now commanded to give up all their arms and military stores. This command, hard as it was, was promptly obeyed. The cruel and treacherous Romans next demanded that the Carthaginians should abandon their city and build another city without walls or fortifications, not nearer to the sea-shore than ten miles, while Carthage was to be burned to the ground. The Carthaginians gave themselves up to grief and despair at this cruel and insolent demand; but resolved to perish beneath the ruins of their city rather than submit to such humiliation. Then began the Third Punic War. (B. C., 149.) The Carthaginians placed Hasdrubal at their head and prepared in earnest to defend their city. Their temples were turned into workshops; and men and women were engaged day and night in manufacturing arms, and the women cut off their long hair to be twisted into bow-strings.

2. The Romans did not expect such an exhibition of courage and patriotism on the part of the Carthaginians;

and for three years the Roman army met with some signal repulses. At length, Scipio Emilianus, the adopted son of the great Scipio Africanus, was placed in command of the Roman army; and after a sanguinary struggle of six days in the

**Capture and
destruction
of Carthage.**

streets of Carthage and on the tops of the houses, the city was taken. By order of Scipio, the conquered city was set on fire, and it continued to burn for seventeen days; and 50,000 of the wretched inhabitants of the city were reduced to slavery, while the remaining 5,000 threw themselves into the flames and thus perished with their city. The wife of Hasdrubal, the Carthaginian leader, reproached her husband as a coward and a traitor, and then threw herself and her children into the flames of the burning city. The city walls were then razed to the ground; and the territory of Carthage, under the name of Africa, became a Roman province, B. C., 146. Thus perished, after an existence of eight centuries, the once-mighty Republic of Carthage, which had been mistress of the Mediterranean, and whose power had once made Rome tremble for her own existence.

CHAPTER XXXV.

HISTORY OF ROME—ROMAN CONQUEST OF SPAIN.

1. AFTER the Third Punic War, the Romans had to sustain a hard conflict in Spain with the Lusitanians, a heroic and powerful people, who, under their brave chief, Viriathus, had defeated the Roman armies and frustrated all attempts to reduce them under the Roman yoke. The struggle lasted eight years, and it was only after Cæpio, the Roman governor of Spain, had treacherously procured the assassination of Viriathus, that the heroic Lusitanians were subdued.

*Viriathus, the
Lusitanian
chief.*

2. Although the Lusitanians submitted to Roman sway after the death of their valiant chief, the Romans were not yet in undisputed and quiet possession of Spain; as the brave people of Numantia still maintained their independence. After two

*Siege and
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mantia.*

large Roman armies had been annihilated, Scipio Æmilianus, the conqueror of Carthage, was sent with 60,000 men against the freedom-loving Numantians. Scipio laid siege to the city of Numantia; and after the Numantians had suffered greatly from famine, they destroyed all their women and children, and then setting fire to their city, threw themselves into the flames and perished to a man, B. C., 133. After the destruction of Numantia, Spain became a Roman province.

3. Two years before the fall of Numantia, B. C., 131, the slaves in Sicily, who had been treated by their masters with the most unmitigated cruelty, rose in rebellion for the purpose of recovering their freedom. During this rebellion the most frightful cruelties were committed by both parties. After four large Roman armies had been defeated by the rebellious slaves, Eunus, the able leader of the insurrection, was betrayed into the hands of the Romans, after which most of the insurgent slaves were put to death, and peace was secured, B. C., 133.

4. The political and social condition of Rome in this period was such as to endanger the liberties of Roman citizens. The great mass of the Roman population were extremely poor, while the majority of the nobility were immensely rich. All the lands, as well as the lucrative offices, came into the possession of the nobles; and thus the greatest inequality in the distribution of property existed among the Roman people. The large plantations were cultivated by slaves, and thus the peasants, driven from their lands by unscrupulous and rapacious land-owners, were reduced to the most extreme state of poverty and social distress.

5. In this wretched state of affairs at Rome, Tiberius Gracchus, a Tribune of the People, and son of Cornelia,

the great Scipio Africanus, proposed the enforcement of the long-neglected agrarian law of Licinius Stolo, which prohibited any Roman from holding more than 500 acres of the public land. This proposal of Tiberius Gracchus was violently opposed by the Roman aristocracy, who vainly endeavored to persuade the people that Tiberius was attempting to overthrow the government and disturb the public peace. When the assemblies of the people were about to vote on the Licinian law, the nobles bribed Octavius, another Tribune, to forbid the proceedings; but the people removed him from the tribuneship, and thus secured the passage of the agrarian law. Tiberius next proposed that the treasures which Attalus, King of Pergamus, at his death, by his last will, had left to the Roman people, should be divided equally among the poor. This proposal met with the most vehement resistance from the Roman nobles; and while a new election for Tribunes was going on, Tiberius was addressing the people at the Capitol, when a false report was carried to the Senate, stating that Tiberius had demanded a crown; whereupon the Senators, headed by Scipio Nasica, and accompanied by their retinue, proceeded to the Capitol, where in a bloody conflict they killed Tiberius Gracchus and three hundred of his adherents, B. C., 132.

**Tiberius
Gracchus.**

6. Ten years after the death of Tiberius Gracchus, his young and talented brother, Caius Gracchus, advocated the cause of the people; and, being elected a Tribune, took measures for enforcing the agrarian law, and commenced many reforms in the administration of public affairs; but when a new election for Tribunes took place, Caius was deprived of the office by false returns and bribery. Caius Gracchus and his adherents were soon afterwards attacked on the Aventine Hill by the forces of the Senate, with the Consul Opimius at their head. The party of Caius was defeated.

**Caius Gra-
chus.**



with the loss of 3,000 men. Caius Gracchus, being surrounded by his enemies, caused one of his own companions to kill him with his sword, B. C., 122. His head was taken to Opimius, who had offered for it a reward of its weight in gold.

7: With the fall of the Gracchi ended the freedom of the Roman people. Thereafter an insolent and corrupt aristocracy ruled the Roman Republic. Rome's most glorious period had now passed away; and the Republic had degenerated into a miserable oligarchy. The Tribunes, who had before been the protectors and guardians of popular rights, becoming rich themselves, concurred with the nobles in oppressing the people.

End of Roman freedom—Triumph of the aristocracy.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

HISTORY OF ROME—AGE OF CAIUS MARIUS AND CORNELIUS SYLLA.

1. THE venality and corruption of the Roman Senate was clearly made manifest by their conduct in connection with the events which led to the Jugurthine War. Micipsa, King of Numidia, son of Massinissa, divided his kingdom, at his death, among his two sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, and his nephew Jugurtha. But Jugurtha, for the purpose of seizing upon the whole kingdom for himself; caused Hiempsal to be murdered, and compelled Adherbal to seek refuge in Rome. The Roman Senate was at first inclined to punish the usurper; but, being corrupted with his gold, at length declared that the Numidian kingdom should be divided between Jugurtha and Adherbal. Jugurtha then made war upon his cousin Adherbal, and after obtaining possession of his person, put him to death. The Roman senate was still disposed to let Jugurtha go unpunished, but the indignation of the Roman people caused the usurper to be brought to

The Jugurthine War.

Rome in order to convict those senators who had taken bribes from him. While in Rome, Jugurtha caused his cousin, Massiva, who aspired to the throne of Numidia, to be murdered in the street. For this crime Jugurtha was compelled to leave Rome. As he went out of the city, he exclaimed, "Venal city, and soon to perish if a purchaser can be found!" A Roman army which had followed Jugurtha into Africa was defeated, and was compelled to pass under the yoke and to evacuate Numidia within ten days. The Roman general Metellus, who had been sent with an army into Africa, drove Jugurtha from his kingdom, whereupon the usurper formed an alliance with his father-in-law, Bocchus, King of Mauritania (now Morocco); but the Roman Consul, Caius Marius, a man of rude manners, defeated the united forces of the two kings. Bocchus, in order to obtain peace for himself, betrayed Jugurtha into the hands of the Romans. Jugurtha was carried to Rome to grace the triumph of Marius, after which he was starved to death in prison.

2. The Jugurthine War had not yet ended when the Cimbrians and the Teutons, two Germanic tribes of barbarians, menaced Italy with invasion. These people left their homes in Northern Europe with their women and children for the purpose of seeking a habitation in a more hospitable region. In the year 113, B. C., they defeated the Roman army commanded by the Consul Papirius Carbo in a sanguinary battle in Noricum. They then passed through Rætia into Southern Gaul, and in the course of four years they completely destroyed four large Roman armies. At length Marius, whom the Roman people, contrary to law, had elected Consul five times in succession, was invested with the chief command of the Roman army in Gaul. The Cimbrians then marched into Italy, leaving the Teutones in Gaul to oppose Marius. After trying in vain to provoke Marius to battle, the Teutons marched past his

camp and jeeringly asked the Romans if they had any messages to send to their wives. Marius followed the Teutones, and in a bloody battle of two days at Aquæ Sextiæ the Teutons were hopelessly overthrown, with the loss of 200,000 men killed and taken prisoners. (B. C., 102.) After crossing the Alps and driving the Roman army under the Consul Catulus across the Padus (now Po), the Cimbrians were annihilated by Marius and Catulus with united forces in a great battle near Vercellæ. (B. C., 101.) To avoid falling into the hands of the Romans, the Cimbrians killed themselves. They lost 200,000 slain and taken prisoners.

3. Soon after the overthrow of the Cimbrians and the Teutones, the very existence of Rome was endangered by a frightful war, called the "Social War,"

The Social War.

between the Romans and their Italian allies. The allies, headed by the Samnites and the Marsians, having long been deprived of the rights of Roman citizenship, now took up arms to compel Rome to grant the long-withheld privileges, or to free themselves from Roman supremacy. They formed a confederacy, and made the town of Italica their capital. The Romans were obliged to grant the rights of citizenship to the Latins, the Umbrians, and the Etruscans, to prevent them from joining the revolted allies. In order to escape total ruin, Rome was at last obliged to confer the rights of citizenship on all who would submit. Thus ended, after a continuation of two years, the famous Social War, in which 300,000 of the population of Italy had perished. (B. C., 88.)

4. Before the close of the Social War, a war broke out in Asia between the Romans and Mithridates, King of Pontus. This powerful monarch, who was also a good linguist, had added several Asiatic States to his dominions, thus awakening the jealousy of the Romans, who were now aiming at supreme sovereignty in Asia. Mithridates caused 80,000

First Mithridatic War.

Roman subjects to be put to death in one day, defeated two powerful Roman armies which had been sent against him, and obtained possession of all Asia Minor. The Grecian States, with Athens at their head, had placed themselves under the authority of the King of Pontus.

5. The Roman Senate gave the command of the army sent against Mithridates to Cornelius Sylla, a man of talent and polished manners, but of immoral and dissipated character, who had served under Caius Marius in the Jugurthine War, in the war against the Cimbrians and Teutons, and in the Social War. But Marius, who was jealous of Sylla's military fame, procured a decree from the Roman people by which the conduct of the war against Mithridates was transferred from Sylla to himself. Sylla led his army from Southern Italy against Rome, entered the city, and outlawed Marius and eleven of his principal adherents. After a series of dangers and romantic adventures, Marius escaped to Africa, B. C., 88.

**Rivalry of
Marius and
Sylla—Flight
and exile of
Marius.**

6. As soon as Sylla had passed into Greece to conduct the war against Mithridates, Marius was recalled from Africa by his partisans; and a furious civil war ensued, which ravaged Italy with all its horrors. The Senate and the nobility sided with the party of Sylla, but Rome was besieged by Marius, who at length compelled the city to surrender. A general massacre of all the partisans of Sylla then commenced, and continued for five days and nights. The heads of the murdered Senators and nobles were given to the dogs and to the birds of the air.

**Civil War of
Marius and
Sylla—Cap-
ture of Rome
by Marius.**

7. Having gratified his thirst for vengeance, Marius was chosen Consul for the seventh time, but he died in sixteen days from the effects of intemperance. (B. C., 86.) While Italy was a prey to the horrors of civil war, Sylla took Athens, by storm, de-
feated two large armies of Mithridates, and compelled that

**Death of Ma-
rius—Sylla's
victories over
Mithridates.**

king to agree to a peace by which the Romans not only recovered their provinces in Asia Minor, but were also indemnified for their expenses in the war. (B. C., 84.)

8. After the conclusion of the First Mithridatic War, Sylla returned to Italy to take vengeance on his enemies.

Capture of After defeating the partisans of Marius in
by Sylla—His many battles, Sylla obtained possession of Rome.
dictatorship, Like Marius, Sylla determined to massacre all
resignation his enemies. All Italy was filled with massa-
and death. cre and blood. In Rome the streets were heaped up with

the dead bodies of the massacred partisans of Marius. Having thus glutted his desire for revenge, Sylla caused himself to be appointed Perpetual Dictator, and proclaimed the Cornelian Law, which gave the government into the hands of the aristocracy at Rome. After exercising the supreme authority for more than two years, Sylla, to the surprise of everybody, resigned his power, and retired to his estate, where he soon afterwards died of a loathsome disease, B. C., 78.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

HISTORY OF ROME—AGE OF CNÆUS POMPEY AND JULIUS
CÆSAR.

1. SYLLAS' resignation and death did not put an end to the civil war by which the Roman Republic was distracted.

Rebellion of In Spain the partisans of Marius, headed by
Sertorius in Sertorius, were still under arms. After Serto-
Spain. rius had gained several victories over the

Roman armies which had been sent against them, the youthful Cnæus Pompey was sent into Spain to quell the rebellion, but he too was defeated; and it was only after Sertorius had been assassinated by his own officers that the rebels were subdued and that peace was restored to Spain, B. C., 70.

2. While the events just related were occurring in

Spain, a dangerous rebellion of the slaves, headed by the gladiator Spartacus, broke out in Italy. ^{Rebellion of the Slaves under Spartacus.} Spartacus, with other gladiators, escaped from his place of confinement at Capua, and induced many slaves to join his standard and fight for their own freedom. Having been joined by fugitives and desperadoes of every sort, Spartacus soon had 120,000 men under his command. Spartacus overthrew two large Roman armies commanded by the Consuls, that were sent against him, but at last he was defeated by the Prætor, M. Crassus. Spartacus fought at the head of his followers until he fell covered with wounds and expired upon a heap of Romans who had fallen beneath his sword. Twelve thousand of his followers were put to the sword, and the remainder were finally subdued by Pompey, the growing rival of the wealthy Crassus, B. C., 70.

3. At this time the Mediterranean sea swarmed with pirates from the mountainous country of Cilicia, in Asia Minor. These pirates would capture towns ^{War against the Cilician pirates.} and villages, and carry off the inhabitants and sell them into slavery. Many Roman nobles and Senators were taken by them, and only obtained their freedom by paying a heavy ransom. Commerce was interrupted by these piracies of the Cilicians, and Rome was threatened with famine. In this dangerous state of affairs, Pompey was invested with the supreme command over all the coasts and islands of the Mediterranean sea. Powerful Roman fleets were sent against the pirates, who were soon driven from the seas and forced to take refuge in their fortresses in Cilicia, where they were subdued by Pompey, who distributed them as colonists in the various cities and towns of Asia Minor, B. C., 67.

4. In the year 74, B. C., the Roman Republic became involved in another war with Mithridates, the powerful King of Pontus. After the Roman general ^{Overthrow of Mithridates and the Scythians.} Lucullus had driven the Pontic king into Armenia, Pompey was sent to take the chief

command of the Roman armies in Asia. In the year 66, B. C., Pompey inflicted a crushing defeat upon Mithridates on the banks of the Euphrates. Three years afterwards, Mithridates, abandoned by his followers and having lost all his dominions, poisoned himself. The year after his victory over Mithridates (B. C., 65) Pompey subverted the Syrian Empire of the Seleucidæ, and Syria became a Roman province.

5. About this time the throne of Judea was claimed by two brothers, John Hyrcanus and Aristobulus II.

**Reduction
of Judea.**

Each applied for aid to Pompey, who decided in favor of Hyrcanus. Aristobulus prepared to resist the Romans, and shut himself up in Jerusalem, which was taken by Pompey after a three months' siege. Hyrcanus was seated on the Jewish throne, but was required to pay tribute to Rome. Aristobulus was carried to Rome to grace the triumph of Pompey.

6. While Pompey was conquering in Asia, the Roman Republic was brought to the very verge of ruin by a conspiracy headed by Sergius Catiline, a man of

**Conspiracy
of Catiline.**

noble birth, but of ruined fortunes and infamous character. Catiline's chief confederates in the plot were mostly young nobles of desperate fortunes, who hoped by overthrowing the government and elevating Catiline to the consulship to obtain possession of the public treasures and the property of the citizens. As the great obstacle to the success of the plans of the conspirators was the vigilance of the great orator, M. Tullius Cicero, who was at that time one of the Roman Consuls, it was resolved to murder him. But Cicero obtained a knowledge of the plans of the conspirators from one of their own number whom he had bribed; and the attempt to assassinate the Consul was frustrated. Catiline had the audacity to make his appearance in the Senate House, where Cicero unmasked the designs of the conspirators; and Catiline, overwhelmed with terror and

confusion, fled into Etruria, where his confederates had collected a large army. The Consul Antonius was sent with an army against the conspirators, who, with Catiline at their head, fought with the most desperate courage until every one of their number was slain. (B. C., 63.) Cicero, whose vigilance and patriotism had saved Rome by defeating this infamous conspiracy, received the glorious title of "Father of his Country."

7. After the conclusion of his wars in Asia, Pompey returned to Rome and united with Crassus and the youthful Caius Julius Cæsar in a political partnership, called the "First Triumvirate," by which ^{The First Triumvirate.} these three men took upon themselves the government of the Roman Republic, and practically usurped the authority of the Senate. (B. C., 60.) The Triumvirs divided the Republic among themselves: Pompey received Spain, Africa, and Italy; Cæsar obtained Gaul, the complete conquest of which was entrusted to him; and Crassus, the richest man in Rome, whose avarice was unbounded, chose Syria, which was famed for its wealth.

8. To gratify his avarice, the wealthy Crassus, on taking possession of Syria, led an expedition into Parthia, for the purpose of further enriching himself ^{Disasters and death of Crassus in} by plundering that country. When the Parthians sent an embassy to Crassus to complain ^{Parthia.} of his aggressive conduct, he boasted that he would give his answer in Seleucia, a suburb of Ctesiphon, the capital of the Parthian Empire. One of the Parthian ambassadors, showing the palm of his hand, replied, "Crassus, hairs will grow there before you see Seleucia." Crassus then advanced far into the Parthian territories, but he was finally defeated, made prisoner, and put to death by the Parthians. The greater part of his army perished, and the Roman ensigns fell into the hands of the victorious enemy. It is said that the triumphant Parthians, in

reproach of the insatiate avarice of Crassus, poured melted lead down his throat after his head had been cut off.

9. In the course of eight years, Julius Cæsar subdued Gaul. During this period he twice crossed the Rhine into Germany, and twice passed over into Britain. He first invaded Britain in the year 55, B. C., and after subjecting the Britons to tribute, he returned to Gaul; but in the year 54, B. C., occurred his second invasion of Britain, which resulted in the second defeat and subjection of the natives, and Cæsar returned to Gaul to complete the subjugation of the wild tribes of that country. While in Gaul, Cæsar conquered three hundred nations, took eight hundred cities and towns, subdued three millions of people, killed one million, and reduced another million to slavery. All this woe was inflicted to gratify the ambition of one man.

**Julius
Cæsar's
Wars in
Gaul, Ger-
many and
Britain.**

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

HISTORY OF ROME—CIVIL WAR OF POMPEY AND CÆSAR.

1. THE death of Crassus left Pompey and Cæsar as the only masters of the Roman world. But these two great generals, being jealous of each other's fame, soon became rivals and enemies. When Cæsar was refused permission to stand as a candidate for the consulship while absent from Rome, after the termination of his wars in Gaul, and was ordered by the Senate to disband his legions and to lay down his office, Cæsar's partisans demanded that Pompey should do the same. But the Senate threatened to declare Cæsar a public enemy unless he unconditionally disbanded his army and resigned his provinces within a specified time. By large bribes, Cæsar had obtained many and powerful friends in Rome, among whom were Mark Antony and Quintus Cassius, Tribunes of the People.

2. It was now evident that the rivalry of Pompey and Cæsar could only be terminated on the field of battle.

**Rivalry of
Pompey and
Cæsar.**

Both parties therefore flew to arms, and the Roman Republic was again involved in all the horrors of civil war. The Tribunes Antony and Cassius fled to Cæsar's camp at Ravenna, in Northern Italy, and inflamed the rage of his army against Pompey and the Senate. Cæsar's soldiers declared their determination to stand by their general to the last. After some hesitation, Cæsar passed the Rubicon, or boundary stream between Umbria and Cisalpine Gaul, and marched hastily toward Rome. The Senate and Pompey, greatly alarmed at Cæsar's rapid advance, fled across the Adriatic sea into Greece; and Cæsar entered Rome, and was in possession of all Italy within sixty days.

**Civil War—
Cæsar's
March to
Rome, and
Pompey's
Flight to
Greece.**

3. After going over into Spain and overthrowing Pompey's adherents in that Roman Province, and taking by siege the town of Marseilles, in Gaul, Cæsar returned to Rome; and then passed over into Greece to make head against Pompey, who had in the mean time collected a large army. The armies of the two rivals met at Pharsalia, in Thessaly, where occurred the battle which decided the fate of the Roman world. Cæsar gained the victory, and Pompey fled to Egypt to claim the protection of Ptolemy, the youthful king of that country. (B. C., 48.) Ptolemy, who was then at war with his sister, Cleopatra, had in his army a young Roman named Septimius, who persuaded the young king to put Pompey to death in order to gain the favor of the victorious Cæsar. As soon as the fallen Pompey, upon arriving at the shores of Egypt, prepared to land, he was assassinated by order of Ptolemy.

**Pompey and
Cæsar in
Greece—
Assassina-
tion of Pom-
pey.**

4. When Cæsar arrived at Alexandria, in Egypt, in pursuit of Pompey and his followers, the bloody head and signet ring of Pompey were brought to him. Cæsar wept bitterly, and turned away in disgust at the sight of these relics. He ordered

**Cæsar in
Egypt—Over-
throw of
Ptolemy.**

the head of his unfortunate rival to be interred with due honors, and bestowed honors and favors on Pompey's most faithful adherents. Ptolemy was greatly disappointed when Cæsar, captivated by the charms of Cleopatra, decided in favor of her claims to the throne of Egypt. Ptolemy's adherents then arose against Cæsar, who, having taken only a few troops with him to Alexandria, was soon involved in the greatest dangers. The palace in which Cæsar had taken refuge was set on fire by Ptolemy's partisans, and the great library which had been established by King Ptolemy Philadelphus fell a prey to the flames. Cæsar succeeded in making his escape from the city, and afterwards overthrew the army of Ptolemy, who, after the battle, was drowned in the Nile, B. C., 48.

5. Cæsar next advanced into Asia against Pharnaces, King of Pontus, son of Mithridates, whom he subdued so easily that he announced his victory to the Roman Senate in three words, "Veni, vidi, vici," "I came, I saw, I conquered." After returning to Rome, Cæsar passed over into Africa, where his enemies, the younger Cato and the sons of Pompey, still had a large army. Cæsar gained a victory in the battle of Thapsus; after which Cato, who had shut himself up in Utica, not wishing to survive the Roman Republic, which he saw had virtually approached its end, committed suicide. (B. C., 46.) After his victory in Africa, Cæsar returned to Rome; but the civil war was not fully closed until the following year (B. C., 45), for Cneius and Sextus, the sons of Pompey, had raised a large army in Spain. Cæsar marched against them and gave them a complete overthrow in the battle of Munda. Cneius was slain while fleeing from the field, but Sextus succeeded in making his escape.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

HISTORY OF ROME—CÆSAR'S DICTATORSHIP.

1. JULIUS CÆSAR was now made Dictator of the Roman world for life, with the title of Imperator, and was invested with all the powers of a monarch, although the name and outward form of the Republic were ^{Dictatorship of Cæsar.} permitted to remain. Cæsar's statue had been placed beside that of Jupiter in the Capitol, and on it was marked the inscription, "To Cæsar the Demi-god." He altered the laws, corrected many abuses, granted the privileges of Roman citizens to whole Roman provinces, sent many citizens into the provinces as colonists, caused the Roman laws to be digested into a code, and planned many improvements, such as the digging of canals, the opening of harbors, the construction of roads, the collection of public libraries, the erection of a new theatre, and the building of a magnificent temple to Mars, the god of war. The Dictator entertained the Roman people with magnificent shows, games, and banquets. Twenty thousand tables were placed in the streets of Rome to feast the people, who had now lost all the republican virtue of their ancestors.

2. Cæsar was soon suspected of a design to assume the title of King. At the feast of the Lupercalia, Mark Antony offered him a crown. It was believed ^{Conspiracy against Cæsar.} that this was done at the secret instigation of the Dictator, but the popular disapprobation of the act obliged Cæsar to refuse the title and emblem of royalty. Still it was thought that the Dictator was aspiring to a kingly dignity, and a conspiracy was formed by about sixty Senators for the assassination of Cæsar. At the head of the conspirators were the Prætor, M. Cassius, who hated Cæsar, and Marcus Junius Brutus, a sincere friend of liberty and a republican of the old stamp, but also a firm friend of Cæsar.

3. The Idea (15th) of March was the day fixed upon for the assassination to take place. When Cæsar had taken his seat in the Senate House, the conspirators approached him under the pretence of saluting him; and one of them, pretending to make some request, took hold of Cæsar's robe as a signal, whereupon the others rushed upon him with their daggers. The Dictator defended himself vigorously, throwing down such as opposed him, until he saw his dear friend Brutus among the conspirators, and, exclaiming "Et tu Brute!" "Thou too, Brutus!" he fell down at the base of Pompey's statue, pierced with twenty-three wounds, and expired. (B. C., 44.) As soon as the bloody work of the conspirators was accomplished, Brutus, brandishing his dagger, congratulated the Senate, and Cicero in particular, on the restoration of Roman liberty. The majority of the Senators, seized with fear and astonishment, fled from Rome and hid themselves in their houses.

4. On the day of Cæsar's funeral, Mark Antony appeared before the people in the Forum of Rome to deliver the funeral oration. He began artfully to work up the passions of the multitude by enumerating the brilliant exploits and the noble acts of the murdered Cæsar, and then lifted up his bloody robe and showed them the number of stabs in it. Antony also showed the people an image of wax, representing Cæsar's body all covered with wounds. The people, becoming so excited that they could no longer restrain their indignation against the assassins, stormed the Senate House, tore up the benches to make a funeral pile, and ran through the streets with lighted brands to set fire to the houses of Brutus, Cassius, and the other conspirators. Brutus and Cassius fled from Rome to the Eastern Roman provinces, where they determined to defend themselves and to arrest the rapid decline of the Roman Republic.

**Assassination
of Cæsar.**

**Funeral of
Cæsar—Mark
Antony—
Flight of
Brutus and
Cassius.**

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CHAPTER XL.

HISTORY OF ROME—MARK ANTONY AND OCTAVIUS CÆSAR.

1. MARK ANTONY, with the aid of Lepidus, one of his adherents, aimed at the supreme power in the Roman world, but he found a powerful rival in the youthful Octavius Cæsar, the grandson of the murdered Dictator's sister Julia, and his adopted son and principal heir to the vast Roman territories. The Roman world was threatened with another furious civil war, when the rivals, Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius, united in a league called the "Second Triumvirate," and agreed to take upon themselves the government of the Roman Republic for five years. (B. C., 43.) The Triumvirs made a cruel and tyrannical use of their power by causing all their most powerful opponents to be put to death. Antony sacrificed his uncle, Lepidus yielded his brother, and Octavius, to his eternal shame, allowed Cicero to be abandoned to the vengeance of his colleagues. Cicero was murdered by a band of assassins who had been sent after him for that purpose.

The Second
Triumvirate

2. As soon as Octavius and Antony had finished their bloody work in Rome they marched against Brutus and Cassius, who had raised an army of more than 100,000 in the Eastern Roman provinces. At Philippi, in Macedonia, two battles were fought, in both of which Octavius and Antony were victorious. (B. C., 41.) Both Brutus and Cassius, in despair at their defeat, committed suicide; and with their death ended the hopes of the Roman Republic forever. After the battle of Philippi, Octavius immediately returned to Rome, while Antony remained in the East.

Brutus and
Cassius in
Greece—Bat-
tle of Philip-
pi—Suicide of
Brutus and
Cassius.

3. Antony passed over into Asia Minor. While at Tarsus, a city of Cilicia, the beautiful but wicked Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt, came to visit him. Antony was so



Antony and Cleopatra.

captivated with the beauty of the Egyptian queen that he went with her to Alexandria, where he abandoned himself to indolence, luxury, and vice, equally regardless of the calls of honor, interest or ambition.

4. While Antony was thus wasting his time in Egypt, a formidable rebellion, headed by Lucius, the brother, and Fulvia, the wife of Antony, broke out in Italy against Octavius. But it was not until the rebellion had been suppressed and quiet restored that Antony resolved to return to Italy. On his way, at Athens, he met his wife Fulvia, whom he blamed for having caused the recent disturbances in Italy, and treated her with great contempt. Leaving her on her death-bed, Antony hastened to Italy, and met the army of Octavius at Brundisium. It was expected that there would be a bloody struggle; but a friendly treaty was effected, and, to cement the union, Antony married Octavia, the sister of Octavius. A new division of the Roman world followed: to Octavius was assigned the West; to Antony, the East; to Lepidus, Africa; and Sextus Pompey, who was also admitted into the partnership, was allowed to hold the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, together with the Peloponnesus.

Rebellion in Italy and new division of the Roman world.

CHAPTER XLI.

HISTORY OF ROME—CIVIL WAR OF OCTAVIUS AND ANTONY.

1. THE peace of the Roman world was soon again broken. Octavius quarrelled with Sextus Pompey and also with Lepidus, and deprived both of them of their provinces. Pompey fled to the East, where he was slain by one of Antony's lieutenants. Antony was now the only obstacle in the way of the ambition of Octavius, who was anxious to make himself sole master of the Roman world. Antony had in

Octavius and Antony.

the mean time led an unsuccessful expedition against the Parthians; after which he returned to Egypt, where he again plunged into luxury and dissipation, and allowed himself to be enslaved by the charms of Cleopatra, on whom he bestowed several Roman provinces in Asia. When Antony's wife, Octavia, went to meet her husband, he ordered her to return to Rome, and shortly afterwards he resolved to marry Cleopatra.

2. Antony's foolish and disgraceful conduct rendered a quarrel between him and Octavius unavoidable. Civil war ensued. The fleets and armies of the two rivals met on opposite shores of the Gulf of Ambracia, near the city of Actium, in Epirus. A battle ensued between the two fleets. The two armies, which were ranged on opposite sides of the gulf, were spectators of the conflict, and encouraged the fleets, by their shouts, to engage. Before the victory was decided, Cleopatra, with her Egyptian squadron, fled from the engagement. Antony, leaving his fleet and army to take care of themselves, immediately followed after the Egyptian queen. The fleet of Octavius obtained the victory, and the land-forces of Antony soon afterward united themselves with the army of Octavius.

Quarrel of Octavius and Antony—Flight of Antony.

3. After first going to Italy and restoring quiet there, the triumphant Octavius pursued Antony and Cleopatra to Egypt. Antony, finding all his attempts to check the progress of the conqueror useless, and being overcome with ungovernable rage and fury, blamed Cleopatra as the cause of his misfortunes; and being determined never to become a prisoner to his victorious rival, killed himself with his own sword. Cleopatra, who had shut herself up in her palace, finding that Octavius intended to take her to Rome to grace his triumph, put an end to her own life by applying a poisonous reptile to her arm. Egypt immediately submitted to Octavius, and became a Roman province.

Suicide of Antony and Cleopatra—Egypt a Roman province.

B. C., 30.

CHAPTER XLII.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE ROMAN EMPIRE—B. C., 30—
A. D., 476.

THE REIGNS OF THE CÆSARS—THE REIGN OF AUGUSTUS, B. C., 30—A. D., 14

1. THE battle of Actium made Octavius sole master of the Roman world. (B. C., 30.) Roman liberty was now gone forever; and the Roman people, who had lost all the virtues and republican spirit of their ancestors, made no attempt to restore the republican constitution. The most illustrious citizens besought Octavius to take the government into his own hands; and the people, tired of the oppression of the aristocracy, gladly placed themselves under the sway of a single master. The Senate conferred upon Octavius all the powers of sovereignty, with the title of Augustus, or "The Divine," and of Imperator, or chief governor, for ten years; and gave his name to the sixth (now eighth) month, as the name of Julius Cæsar had been given to the fifth (now seventh) month. He was afterwards made Perpetual Tribune of the People, which rendered his person sacred. A force of 9,000 men, called the Prætorian Guards, was stationed in Rome for the protection of the Emperor's person. Augustus, however, used his power moderately, and ruled with mildness and clemency. He restored the authority of the Senate. The cruel and tyrannical Octavius became the mild and merciful Augustus.

2. After additional conquests by the Romans, and the annexation of Aquitania, Pannonia, Dalmatia, and Illyria to the Roman dominions, a general peace prevailed throughout the Roman Empire, which now extended from the Atlantic ocean to the Euphrates, and from the Rhine and the Danube to the African deserts and the falls of the Nile. It was at this time that Jesus Christ, the Saviour of mankind, was born in the little village of Bethlehem, in Judea.

General
Peace—Great
extent of the
Roman Em-
pire—Birth of
the Saviour.

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8. A few years after the birth of the Saviour, the Germans, who had been subjected to Roman rule, vigorously attempted to recover their independence. The Roman general, Varus, was enticed into the German forests, where his whole army was cut to pieces. (A. D., 9.) Varus, in despair at this defeat, committed suicide. The loss of this army was a terrible blow to the Emperor Augustus, who, in paroxysms of grief, exclaimed, "Varus! Varus! restore me my legions!" The danger of an incursion of the barbarians into Italy was prevented by Tiberius, the son-in-law of the Emperor, who was sent with an army to guard the passes of the Rhine. After a remarkably quiet and prosperous reign of forty-four years, Augustus died in the year 14 after Christ.

4. On the death of Augustus, his son in-law Tiberius succeeded to the throne of the Roman Empire. Tiberius commenced his reign with an appearance of moderation and clemency, but he soon gave way to his cruel, jealous and despotic nature. In the early part of his reign, the noble and virtuous Germanicus, his nephew, gained brilliant victories over the Germans; but the fame of Germanicus excited the jealousy of the unworthy Emperor, who appointed him governor of the Eastern Roman provinces, and afterwards procured his death by poison. It was during the reign of Tiberius that Jesus Christ, the redeemer of the human race, was crucified on Mount Calvary, under the prætorship of Pontius Pilate, the Roman Governor of Judea.

5. The cruelty of Tiberius increased every day. Many of the nobles died by his orders. His depravity and cruelty were equalled by that of his minister and favorite, Sejanus, who himself secretly aspired to the throne, and who artfully contrived to have the Emperor removed from

Rebellion of
the Germans
— Defeat of
Varus—Death
of Augustus.

Cruelty and
tyranny of Ti-
berius — Cru-
cifixion of the
Saviour.

Crimes of Ti-
berius and Se-
janus — Assas-
sination of
Tiberius.

Rome to the Island of Capreae, near Naples, for the purpose of freeing him from the cares of government. The Emperor soon abandoned himself to every sort of vice and debauchery, while Sejanus was ruling with the utmost cruelty and despotism in Rome, where he caused numbers to be put to death. At length, becoming acquainted with the ambitious designs of Sejanus, Tiberius had him arrested for treason, and put to death. The friends and relatives of Sejanus met with the same fate. At last Tiberius himself was smothered in his bed by one of his own officers, at the instigation of the unworthy Caligula, son of the worthy Germanicus, A. D., 37.

6. Caligula became the successor of Tiberius. His accession was welcomed by the Roman people. Caligula, **Crime and Follies of Caligula—Assassination of Caligula.** like his predecessor, commenced his reign with prudence and mildness, but the people soon found him to be a detestable tyrant and a wicked monster. He ordered all the prisoners in Rome and hundreds of old and infirm citizens to be thrown to wild beasts, for the mere pleasure of seeing them tortured and torn to pieces. He at length claimed divine honors, erected a temple to himself, and instituted a college of priests to superintend the worship of his person. He often invited his favorite horse, Incitatus, to dine at the imperial table, fed him with gilded oats, built him a stable of marble, and his death only prevented him from raising the animal to the dignity of Consul. The foolish emperor often employed inventions to imitate thunder for the purpose of defying Jupiter; and he pretended to converse in whispers with the statue of that divinity, and sometimes pretended to be angry with its answers, and threatened to send it back to Greece. When the Senate appeared reluctant in adulation, he threatened to massacre the whole body. On one occasion, being angry with the citizens, Caligula wished that the whole Roman people had but one head, that he might cut it off

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at one blow. The emperor's prodigality and tyranny increased every day. At last a conspiracy was formed against the tyrant, and he was murdered by his own guards. (A. D., 41.)

7. Claudius, brother of Germanicus and uncle of Caligula, was next proclaimed Emperor by the Prætorian Guards, and this choice was confirmed by the Senate. Claudius, who was a perfect idiot, Roman Successes in Britain—Assassination of Claudius. was a mere instrument in the hands of his wife and favorites. The Romans now determined

to obtain full possession of Britain, and Claudius sent his general, Aulus Plautius, to conquer the Britons. The Emperor Claudius himself afterwards undertook an expedition to Britain. The Britons were finally defeated, and their chief, Caractacus, was carried a prisoner to Rome. As Caractacus was walking through the streets of Rome, loaded with chains, he exclaimed, "Alas! is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home should envy my humble cottage in Britain!" At length Claudius put to death his wife Messalina, whose crimes and cruelties had become intolerable. The emperor then married his niece Agrippina. After having induced Claudius to appoint her son Nero his successor, Agrippina caused the emperor to be poisoned, A. D., 54.

8. Agrippina having secured the commander of the Prætorian Guards to her interest, Nero was proclaimed Emperor by the army, and this choice was confirmed by the Senate. Nero had been nurtured in the midst of crimes, and the people justly dreaded Crimes of Nero. his accession to the throne. He, however, ruled with mildness during the first five years of his reign, while under the influence of his instructors, Seneca the philosopher, and Burrhus. At length his mother, Agrippina, seeing herself neglected, designed to bestow the crown on Britannicus, the son of Claudius. Becoming aware of this, Nero caused both Agrippina and Britan-

nicus to be put to death. From this time, Nero abandoned himself to cruelty and bloodshed. Burrhus, his minister, Seneca the philosopher, and Lucan the poet, and many of the most eminent nobles, were put to death by order of the hard-hearted emperor. Nero's first wife, Octavia, was divorced and murdered, and his second wife, Poppæa, was killed by a kick from her husband. The virtuous Cæcilius, who had defeated the Parthians, was rewarded for his victories, by the cruel emperor, with death. During the reign of Nero, the Jews began that rebellion against the Roman power which finally resulted in the destruction of that people as a nation. The Emperor Nero often appeared on the stage as an actor, musician, and gladiator. He also visited Greece, and often came forth victor in the Olympic games.

9. In the year 64, A. D., a frightful conflagration of nine days destroyed the greater part of the city of Rome; and it was generally believed that the fire was kindled by the secret orders of Nero. It is said that the emperor stood upon a high tower while the fire was raging, enjoying the scene and singing to the music of his harp the Destruction of Troy. In order to withdraw the blame of the cause of this calamity from himself, Nero charged it upon the Christians of Rome, thousands of whom were consequently most cruelly tortured and put to death. Many were covered with the skins of wild beasts and devoured by dogs, some were crucified, and others were burned alive.

10. In Britain, the Romans under Suetonius Paulinus gained brilliant victories over the savage tribes of that island. At length the Iceni, under their heroic queen, Boadicea, rose against the Roman power, burned London, and put 70,000 Romans to death. But the Roman general avenged the death of his countrymen in a terrible battle, in which he defeated Boadicea, and in which 80,000 Britons were

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killed. In despair at this defeat, Boadicea committed suicide.

11. Nero's prodigality knew no restraint. The Roman provinces were pillaged to support the emperor's luxurious manner of living. He was popular with the lower classes, to whom he made monthly distributions of corn and frequent supplies of wine, and whom he delighted with magnificent shows. At length, Julius Vindex, the Roman governor of Gaul, unfurled the standard of rebellion; and soon afterward, Galba headed an insurrection in Spain. Vindex was killed in the contest. Galba secured Otho, the commander of the Prætorian Guards, and the Senate to his interest; and Nero, abandoning all hope, caused himself to be mortally wounded by one of his own freedmen. (A. D., 68.) Nero was the last emperor of the Julian line of the Cæsars.

12. Upon the death of Nero the virtuous Galba obtained the imperial purple, which, however, he did not wear very long. He allowed himself to be ruled by unworthy favorites; and when Otho, who had been one of his principal adherents, found that the emperor did not name him as his successor, he induced the Prætorian Guards to revolt. Galba was killed in the streets of Rome during a short struggle, after a reign of seven months, A. D., 69.

13. The dissolute and unworthy Otho, who was next invested with the purple, was a mere instrument in the hands of the licentious soldiers. He was soon disturbed in the possession of the throne by a revolt of the Roman legions on the German frontier, which proclaimed their vicious commander, Vitellius, Emperor. Otho marched against Vitellius, but his troops were defeated; and Otho, in despair, committed suicide, after a reign of but little more than three months, A. D., 69.

Overthrow
and Death of
Nero.

Overthrow
and Death
of Galba.

Overthrow
and Death
of Otho.

14. Upon Otho's death, Vitellius was declared Emperor by the Senate. When Vitellius entered Rome, he caused more than four hundred of the Prætorian Guards to be put to death. Vitellius entrusted the management of public affairs to the most abandoned and debauched wretches. He won the favor of the Roman people by donations of provisions and by expensive entertainments. Vitellius was noted for his gluttonous and luxurious habits. In less than four months he squandered a sum equal to seven millions sterling on the luxuries of the table and for expensive banquets. Not satisfied with gratifying his appetite, the emperor indulged in acts of the most unrelenting cruelty. Many who ate with him were put to death without mercy. Many of the wealthy Roman citizens were deprived of their property, and also of their lives, by this bloated and debauched emperor. He declared that he derived pleasure from tormenting his victims. On one occasion, when a man was condemned to death, he executed his two sons with their father for begging his life.

15. At last the Roman legions in the East engaged in the siege of Jerusalem proclaimed their general, Vespasian, Emperor. Province after province submitted to Vespasian's troops, who marched to Italy and took possession of Rome. A furious and bloody struggle ensued in the city; and Vitellius was seized by his enemies, put to death, and his body thrown into the Tiber, amid the execration of the populace, A. D. 70.

16. Upon the ignominious death of Vitellius, Vespasian was hailed as Emperor by the Roman people. This good and virtuous monarch did all in his power for the welfare of his subjects, by whom he was greatly beloved. He instituted many wise reforms, improved the administration of justice, and restored the discipline of the army and the authority of the

Extrava-
gance and
cruelty of
Vitellius.

Overthrow
and death of
Vitellius.

Wise reforms
of Vespasian.

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Senate. He encouraged the arts and sciences, and beautified Rome with many splendid edifices, of which the Coliseum was the most remarkable. The Emperor Vespasian was very generous, as is fully shown by his refusal to punish certain conspirators who had plotted against him.

17. The Jews, who had risen in rebellion against the Roman power during the reign of Nero, were subdued during the reign of Vespasian, when they were destroyed as a nation. The rebellion of the Jews was caused by the tyranny of Florus, the Roman governor of Judea. The deluded Jews believed themselves to be able to resist the gigantic power of the whole Roman world. Vespasian had been for three years conducting the war against the Jews when he was called to Rome to receive the imperial purple. When Vespasian left Judea, he assigned the command of his legions to his son Titus, who laid siege to Jerusalem during the Feast of the Passover, when people from all parts of Judea were gathered in the Holy City. The Jews defended their city with an army of 600,000 men; but while the Roman armies were battering down the walls of the city, the infatuated Jews were divided into two hostile factions, which waged a fierce civil war against each other in the streets of Jerusalem. Both factions defended the city with the most determined bravery, until they were so exhausted by famine and by internal wars that they were compelled to surrender the city to the besieging Romans. But for three months longer the Temple held out against the besiegers. When it was finally taken, Titus, who was anxious to spare this noble edifice, was unable to restrain the savage fury of his enraged soldiers; and the Holy City and the Temple were reduced to a heap of ruins, A. D. 70. Many of the vanquished Jews fell by the swords of their conquerors or died by their own hands, whilst thousands were sold into slavery.

Jewish rebellion—destruction of Jerusalem and of the Jewish nation.

Ever since the destruction of Jerusalem, the Jews, scattered over various parts of the earth, have been outcasts and wanderers.

18. The reign of Vespasian is also noted for the final conquest of Britain by the Romans. This was effected by **Final conquest of Britain by Julius Agricola.** Julius Agricola, two years after the fall of Jerusalem, A. D. 72. Agricola carried the renown of the Roman arms to the borders of Caledonia (now Scotland); but he was unable to subdue the wild Picts and Scots, who inhabited that rugged country. Agricola also taught the Britons the arts of peace, and introduced among them the Roman customs and manners, thus laying the foundations for the civilization of the conquered Britons. The Emperor Vespasian died after a reign of nine years, A. D. 79.

19. The noble Vespasian was succeeded as Emperor by his son Titus, the conqueror of Jerusalem. Titus had been very dissipated and vicious in his habits; but when he assumed the imperial purple, he reformed, and became, like his father, a virtuous, wise, and just sovereign, having the welfare of his subjects at heart. On this account he was called "The Delight of Mankind." During the first year of the reign of Titus, A. D. 79, the most terrible eruption of the volcano of Vesuvius ever known occurred, completely destroying the two great cities, **Destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii.** Herculaneum and Pompeii. The Emperor Titus died after a reign of two years, A. D. 81.

20. The good Titus was succeeded as Emperor by his brother Domitian, who at first appeared to be a just and merciful sovereign; but Domitian's character soon changed, and he became a hard-hearted tyrant. His favorite amusement was archery, and his chief ambition was to entertain the Roman people with expensive sports and games. He spent his hours or seclusion in killing flies. This emperor had also a great

Tyranny and follies of Domitian.

passion for military glory. He undertook an expedition to Gaul, but as he did not meet with an enemy, he dressed slaves like Germans, took them to Rome, and pretended that they were prisoners whom he had taken in battle.

21. The Emperor Domitian cruelly persecuted the Christians, and seized the estates of the wealthy to gratify his avarice. At length a conspiracy was formed against the despot by his own wife, Domitia, whom he had resolved to put to death; and Domitian, the last of the Cæsars, was assassinated after some resistance, A. D., 96.

Assassination of Domitian.

CHAPTER XLIII.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE FIVE GOOD EMPERORS.

1. UPON the assassination of Domitian, the talented and virtuous Nerva was chosen Emperor by the Senate. Nerva was liberal and generous to excess. He made good laws, abolished oppressive taxes, and even sold his gold and plate that he might be able to bestow gifts on his friends. He allowed no statue to be erected to himself, and no Senator was punished with death during his mild and merciful reign. This good emperor died after a reign of two years, A. D., 98.

Noble and generous conduct of Nerva.

2. The next emperor after Nerva was Trajan, who was a mild and merciful monarch as well as a successful warrior. Trajan devoted his attention to the welfare of his empire, and took measures for improving its condition. Notwithstanding his many merits, Trajan was a persecutor of the Christians.

Good character of Trajan.

3. Soon after Trajan became Emperor, the Dacians north of the Danube ravaged the northern frontier of the Roman Empire. The Emperor Trajan led an army against the Dacians, overthrew them in battle, and reduced their country, Dacia, to the condition of a Roman province. When Trajan returned

Conquest of Dacia by Trajan.

to Rome from his Dacian campaign, a splendid triumph was celebrated, and the public rejoicing continued for one hundred and twenty days.

4. The emperor Trajan afterwards marched into Asia for the purpose of subduing the Parthians and the Armenians, who attempted to regain their independence. Parthia, Syria and Chaldea were conquered by the Roman Emperor after several campaigns. Trajan made a triumphal entry into Babylon, crossed the Tigris, took Ctesiphon, in Syria, and conquered some of the Persian provinces. The fatigues of war hastened Trajan's death, which took place in Cilicia, after a reign of nineteen years, A. D., 117.

**Trajan's
Asiatic
campaigns.**

5. The good Trajan was succeeded by Adrian, who also belonged to the list of good emperors. Adrian was a great lover of peace, and he abandoned all the countries which had been conquered by Trajan, as he deemed them detrimental, rather than valuable, to the Roman Empire. The Emperor Adrian, with all his many virtues, was a persecutor of the Christians.

**Adrian's
love of
peace.**

6. The Emperor Adrian spent much of his time in travelling over Gaul, Spain, Germany, Britain, Greece, and through all his dominions in Asia and Africa. In Britain he greatly improved the city of York, which was the capital of that Roman province. The emperor also caused a wall to be erected from the river Tyne to Solway Frith, in order to prevent the ravages of the Caledonians, who inhabited the northern part of the island. Adrian died near Naples, after a quiet and prosperous reign of eighteen years, A. D., 135.

**Adrian's
travels.**

7. Adrian's successor on the imperial throne was the good and peaceful Titus Antoninus, who, on account of his mild and merciful reign, was called Antoninus Pius. The period of the reign of this emperor was the most happy and prosperous that the Roman Empire ever enjoyed, as peace

**Rule of Anto-
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Tranquillity
of the Em-
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prevailed throughout the whole Roman world. The virtuous Antoninus suspended the persecution of the Christians, and punished their persecutors. He devoted all his energies to the welfare of his subjects, and protected the people of the various Roman provinces from the oppression and avarice of their governors. After a tranquil and prosperous reign of twenty-two years, the good Antoninus Pius died, A. D., 163.

8. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, the successor of Titus Antoninus Pius, also belonged to the class of good emperors. Marcus Aurelius shared his power with his unworthy son-in-law, Lucius Verus, whom, soon after his accession to the throne, he sent with an army against the Parthians. Verus established his residence at Antioch, where he abandoned himself to all sorts of vice, while his officers defeated the Parthians.

9. The "Thundering Legion."—A frightful war next broke out between the Romans and the Marcomanni, a powerful German tribe of barbarians. Both Aurelius and Verus took the field against the barbarians; but the intemperate Verus soon died. Marcus Aurelius remained five years in Germany, carrying on the war against the Marcomanni. On one occasion, the Romans were drawn into a narrow defile, where they had almost perished from thirst, when they were relieved by a thunder-storm, which struck into the tents of the barbarians, who, greatly frightened, immediately agreed to a peace with the Romans. It was believed that the storm was sent in answer to the prayers of the Christian soldiers in the Roman army. The emperor immediately named their division "The Thundering Legion."

10. The mild and beneficent Marcus Aurelius died at Vienna, after a reign of seventeen years, A. D., 180. He was the last of a succession of good Roman emperors.



Character of the successors of Marcus Aurelius.

With his death the glory of the Roman Empire virtually ended. The greater number of his successors were detestable and intolerable tyrants, who generally suffered violent deaths. From this time the Roman Empire rapidly verged towards its fall; the barbarians from Northern Europe at length pressed heavily upon its northern frontiers, and finally put an end to its existence.

CHAPTER XLIV.

HISTORY OF ROME—THE PERIOD OF MILITARY DESPOTISM.

1. MARCUS AURELIUS was succeeded on the imperial throne by his son Commodus, who, on account of his vices and cruelties, proved himself unworthy of the imperial dignity. Commodus possessed great physical strength; and he often fought with the gladiators in the Amphitheatre, where he conquered seven hundred and fifty times, on which account he styled himself "Conqueror of a Thousand Gladiators." The tyranny of Commodus at length led to plots against his life; and he was assassinated after a reign of twelve years, and his body was cast into the Tiber, A. D., 192.

2. The virtuous Pertinax succeeded the unworthy Commodus on the imperial throne. Pertinax protected the citizens from the insolence of the Prætorian Guards, who, for this reason, rose against the good emperor and put him to death, after a reign of three months. (A. D., 193.)

3. The insolent Prætorian Guards now put up the Roman Empire for sale to the highest bidder. The wealthy Senator, Didius Julianus, bid off at a sum equal to ten millions of dollars, and was accordingly raised to the imperial dignity. This disgraceful transaction raised up several rivals against the unworthy Didius Julianus. These

Purchase of the Empire by Didius Julianus—His overthrow and death.

Assassination of Pertinax.

Feats of Commodus—Assassination of Commodus.

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were Septimius Severus, who commanded the Roman legions in Pannonia; Pescennius Niger, in Syria; and Clodius Albinus, in Britain. Septimius Severus reached Rome before his rivals and was made emperor; and Didius Julianus was put to death by the executioner. (A. D., 193.)

4. After securing the imperial purple, Septimius Severus took the field against Pescennius Niger, who was defeated and killed in battle on the plain of Issus, famous for the great victory gained by Alexander the Great over the Persians five centuries before. Severus next marched against Clodius Albinus in Gaul; and a terrible battle was fought at Lyons, and Albinus, being defeated and taken prisoner, was put to death.

Overthrow and death of Pescennius Niger and Clodius Albinus.

5. Having overcome his rivals, Septimius Severus next marched against the Parthians, who continued their attacks on the Roman power in Asia. Severus defeated the Parthians and captured their principal cities, Seleucia, Ctesiphon and Babylon. The emperor was afterwards called to Britain to repress the incursions of the savage Picts and Scots. After driving back the savages, Severus rebuilt the wall between the Clyde and Forth rivers, for the purpose of keeping the troublesome savages in their own part of the island. The Emperor Septimius Severus died at York, in Britain, after a reign of nearly eighteen years. (A. D., 217.)

Campaigns of Septimius Severus in Asia and Britain.

6. Septimius Severus left his empire to his two sons, Caracalla and Geta; but Caracalla killed his brother in his mother's arms and became sole emperor. Caracalla proved to be a cruel and tyrannical sovereign. His despotic conduct finally caused his assassination after a reign of six years. (A. D., 217.)

Cruelty and tyranny of Caracalla—Assassination of Caracalla.

7. Macrinus, captain of the Prætorian Guards, and instigator of the assassination of Caracalla, was next

**Overthrow
and death of
Macrinus.**

raised to the imperial dignity; but soon a competitor appeared to contest with him the sovereignty of the Roman Empire. Macrinus was put to death, and Heliogabalus was raised to the imperial throne. (A. D., 218.)

8. The sensualities, vices, and follies of Heliogabalus soon exhibited themselves. His prodigality knew no bounds. His suppers sometimes cost sixty thousand dollars each. He dressed himself in gold and purple, and wore the same dress only once. He created a senate of women to arrange the fashions of dress, and raised his horse to the office of Consul.

**Vices and fol-
lies of Heli-
gabalus.**

9. The mother of Heliogabalus, for the purpose of restraining the emperor's vicious conduct, proposed his cousin, the virtuous Alexander Severus, as his partner in the empire. The affections of the soldiers were soon bestowed on Alexander; and Heliogabalus was assassinated, and his body was cast into the Tiber. (A. D., 222.)

**Assassination
of Heliogab-
alus.**

10. The good Alexander Severus was universally acknowledged as emperor upon the assassination of Heliogabalus. Alexander soon proved himself in every respect deserving of his high station. He instituted many wise reforms for the benefit of the Roman people.

**Beneficent
rule of Alex-
ander Severus.**

11. The strict military discipline of Alexander Severus inflamed the soldiers against him, and he was murdered by them while engaged in driving away the barbarians who had invaded the northern parts of the Roman Empire. (A. D., 235.)

**Assassination
of Alexander
Severus.**

12. The Thracian Maximin, who had instigated the soldiers to the assassination of the worthy Alexander Severus, succeeded to the imperial throne. Maximin soon proved himself to be an intolerable despot. He put rich men to death for

**Tyranny and
cruelties of
Maximin.**

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the purpose of seizing their estates, and he rigorously persecuted the Christians.

13. At length the tyranny and cruelties of the Emperor Maximin led to a rebellion in Africa, headed by the Pro-consul Gordian, who was highly esteemed for his virtues. The soldiers of Gordian compelled their general to accept the imperial office. The Senate and people of Rome confirmed the elevation of Gordian, and declared Maximin, who was then conducting a war against the barbarians in Germany, a public enemy. When Maximin heard of this, he flew into the most ungovernable rage, and resolved to march to Rome and massacre all his opponents. The virtuous Gordian was defeated and slain in battle by Maximin's adherents in Africa. Soon afterwards, the detestable Maximin was killed by his own troops while on his march to attack Rome. (A. D., 238.)

Overthrow
and death of
Maximin.

14. Just before the death of the Emperor Maximin, the Roman Senate had appointed Pupienus and Baldinus Emperors; jealousy and enmity having arisen between them, both were soon assassinated by the Prætorian Guards; whereupon the youthful Gordian, a grandson of the Gordian who had fallen in Africa, received the imperial purple.

Short reign
and assassina-
tion of Pu-
pienus and
Baldinus-
Gordian.

15. The Roman empire was at this time greatly harassed on the east by the New Persians, who after having overthrown the Parthian Empire and established the Persian Empire of the Sassanidæ, attempted to overthrow the Roman power in Asia.

The Persian
empire of
the Sassan-
idæ.

16. The Emperor Gordian defeated the Persians under their valiant king, Sapor, drove them out of Syria, and compelled them to abandon Mesopotamia; but he was finally assassinated by Philip the Arabian, commander of the Prætorian Guards, who caused himself to be made emperor. (A. D. 244.)

Gordian's
victories over
the Persians
—Assassina-
tion of Gor-
dian.

17. The Emperor Philip the Arabian sought to signalize his reign by a magnificent celebration of the one thousandth anniversary of Rome. The Roman people were entertained with the most splendid shows, and two thousand gladiators fought in the Amphitheatre for their amusement.

The 1000th anniversary of Rome.

18. The Emperor Philip sent his general, Decius, with an army, to suppress a rebellion which had broken out in Pannonia. The soldiers of Decius compelled their general to accept the office of Emperor by threatening to kill him if he refused. Philip, on hearing of this, marched against Decius, but was defeated and slain near Verona. (A.D., 249.)

Overthrow and death of Philip the Arabian.

19. The Emperor Decius was in many respects a wise and virtuous sovereign; but he tarnished his character by the most cruel persecutions of the Christians. Thousands of these persons in various parts of the Roman Empire were driven from their homes, subjected to the severest tortures, and put to death in the most cruel manner. Many fled for refuge to the mountains and deserts.

Great persecution of the Christians.

20. During the reign of Decius, occurred a formidable invasion of the Roman Empire by the Goths, a Scandinavian tribe, who crossed the Danube and frightfully devastated Moesia and Thrace. The Emperor Decius marched against the barbarians and gained a great victory over them; but he was at last defeated, and, in despair, he plunged into a marsh and was immediately swallowed up. (A.D., 251.)

Gothic Invasion of the Empire—Defeat and death of Decius.

21. Upon the death of Decius, Gallus was proclaimed emperor by the army. Gallus made an ignominious peace with the Goths, and renewed the violent persecution of the Christians which Decius had commenced. The cowardly conduct of Gallus aroused universal indignation among his sub-

Cowardly conduct of Gallus—Assassination of Gallus—Emilianus.

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jects, and the Roman armies in the East proclaimed Æmilianus emperor, whereupon Gallus was killed by his own soldiers. The Senate refused to recognize Æmilianus as emperor, whereupon he was put to death by his own troops and the virtuous Valerian was proclaimed and acknowledged emperor. (A. D. 258.)

22. Valerian's shining qualities did not appear to much advantage when he became emperor. The Christians were cruelly persecuted, and the Roman Empire was ravaged on the north by the Goths and the Scythians, and on the east by the Persians.

The Goths, and the Scythians—The Persians.

23. The Emperor Valerian defeated the Goths; but when he attempted to drive the Persians out of Syria, he was surrounded by the Persian army, taken prisoner, and carried in triumph to Persia. The Persian king, Sapor, caused the captive emperor to be treated in the most brutal manner,—using his neck as a footstool whenever he mounted his horse, and after keeping him in captivity for seven years, caused him to be flayed alive, and his skin to be stuffed and dyed in scarlet and nailed up in a Persian temple as a great national trophy. (A. D., 260.)

Captivity of Valerian in Persia—His brutal treatment by Sapor.

24. Gallienus, the son of Valerian, succeeded as Emperor, receiving the intelligence of his father's cruel treatment and death with inward satisfaction. The barbarians now pressed upon the Roman Empire on all sides; and a host of competitors appeared for the throne, the most powerful of whom was Odenatus, Prince of Palmyra, who inflicted severe defeats upon the Persians.

Odenatus, Prince of Palmyra.

25. In order to gain the friendship and support of Odenatus, the Emperor Gallienus made him his partner in the Empire, assigning to him the Eastern Roman provinces. But Odenatus was soon murdered by his own troops, and was succeeded on the throne of Palmyra by his widow,

Zenobia, Queen of the East—Assassination of Gallienus.

Zenobia, who styled herself "Queen of the East." All the rivals of Gallienus suffered violent deaths; and Gallienus himself was assassinated while he was besieging one of his rivals in Milan. (A. D., 268.)

26. Flavius Claudius succeeded Gallienus on the imperial throne. Claudius defeated the Goths and the

Defeat of the Goths and the Vandals by Flavius Claudius. Vandals with frightful slaughter; after which he marched against Zenobia, the Queen of the East, but died on his way of a pestilence which had broken out in his army. (A. D., 270.)

27. Quintilius, the brother and successor of Flavius Claudius, killed himself in despair, after a reign of seven-
Quintilius—Defeat of the Goths and Vandals by Aurelian. teen days, when he learned that Aurelian had been proclaimed emperor by the army. (A. D., 270.) Aurelian defeated and drove back the barbarian Goths and Vandals from the northern frontiers of the Roman Empire.

28. After his successes over the barbarians in the North the Emperor Aurelian passed over into Asia, overthrew
Overthrew and captivity of Zenobia. the Kingdom of Palmyra, carried Zenobia, the Queen of the East, captive to Rome, and presented her with an estate, where, to all appearances, she passed the remainder of her life contentedly.

29. With some commendable qualities, Aurelian possessed a stern and severe disposition. While marching
Assassination of Aurelian. with an army against the Persians, he was assassinated by some of his own officers, A. D., 275.

30. The enlightened and virtuous Tacitus, a descendant of the historian of that name, was chosen emperor by the Senate, after Aurelian's assassination. Tacitus
Character of Tacitus. distinguished himself as a soldier, and died in Cappadocia, while preparing to carry on the war against Persia, after a reign of seven months, A. D., 275.

31. Florian, a brother of Tacitus, was proclaimed

emperor by one portion of the army, while Probus was chosen by another portion. As Florian was not acknowledged by the Senate, he killed himself in despair, and Probus was left in full possession of the empire, A. D., 275.

Florian and Probus.

32. Probus was a successful warrior. He first overthrew the barbarians who had invaded Gaul, killing 100,000 of their number. He next defeated the Goths, the Vandals and the Sarmatians. Having passed his native city, Sirmium, in Pannonia, Probus employed his soldiers in draining a marsh, but they, disliking the work, became enraged and killed their emperor, A. D., 282.

Defeat of the barbarians by Probus—Assassination of Probus.

33. Probus was succeeded on the imperial throne by Carus, commander of the Prætorian Guards, who was proclaimed Emperor by the army. Carus defeated the Sarmatians, after which he marched against the Persians, who continued their ravages on the Eastern provinces of the Roman Empire. After defeating the Persians in Mesopotamia, Carus was killed in his tent by lightning. A. D., 283.

Victories of Carus over the Sarmatians and Persians.

34. Numeria and Carinus, the sons of Carus, succeeded to the empire, but Numeria was soon assassinated, whereupon the soldiers proclaimed Diocletian emperor. (A. D., 284.) Carinus resolved to dispute the sovereignty with Diocletian, when he was killed by his own troops, A. D., 284.

Short reign and assassination of Numeria and Carinus—Diocletian.

35. Diocletian was of low origin, his parents having been slaves. He received his name from Dioclea, a town in Dalmatia, where he was born. He had passed through the various gradations of office, being promoted successively to the offices of Provincial Governor, Consul, and Prætorian Prefect. He owed his elevation entirely to his abilities and merits, and was about forty years of age when he became emperor.

Origin and character of Diocletian.

Diocletian possessed many virtues, but he sullied his character by a cruel persecution of the Christians in all parts of the Roman Empire.

36. The commencement of Diocletian's reign is often called the "Era of Martyrs," on account of the dreadful persecutions of which the Christians were the victims. This epoch was long observed in the Christian Church, and is still remembered by the Copts of Egypt, the Abyssinians, and other African Christians.

37. As the cares of the vast Roman Empire were too great for one person, the Emperor Diocletian divided the imperial authority, taking as his partner in the Empire, Maximian, a brave and able soldier, but an ignorant and cruel barbarian. Diocletian retained for himself the government of the East, while Maximian ruled over the West. Still the troubles of the Empire were so great that Diocletian took Galerius as his subordinate colleague, or Cæsar, while Maximian chose Constantius Chlorus as his subordinate, or Cæsar; so that the Roman world was now divided among four sovereigns, of which Diocletian was the chief. Diocletian retained Asia, Galerius ruled over Thrace and Illyricum, Maximian swayed Italy and Africa, and Constantius Chlorus governed Spain, Gaul and Britain.

38. A rebellion which broke out in Britain was suppressed by Constantius Chlorus after a continuance of ten years. A revolt in Egypt was crushed by Diocletian himself, who made the rebellious inhabitants feel the effects of his vengeance. The Moors of Northern Africa, who had attacked the Roman dominions in that quarter, were vanquished by the arms of Maximian. A war which broke out with Persia was brought to a successful conclusion by Galerius after two campaigns with the Persians.

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however; by a violent persecution of the Christians, the Emperor Diocletian abdicated the imperial throne in the presence of a vast multitude of people, and retired to private life. (A. D., 305.) On the same day, Maximian resigned his authority. Diocletian never regretted this act, which he survived nine years. When requested by Maximian and others to resume the purple, he replied, "If you would see the cabbages I raise in my garden, you would not ask me to take a throne."

Abdication
of Diocletian
and Maxi-
mian.

CHAPTER XLV.

REIGN OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT (A. D., 306-337).

1. AFTER the abdication of Diocletian and Maximian, Galerius and Constantius Chlorus were recognized as emperors, and each took a subordinate colleague, or Cæsar. (A. D., 306.) Constantius died at York, in Britain, and was succeeded by his son Constantine, afterwards surnamed "the Great." A period of great confusion and sanguinary civil wars followed. Galerius and the two Cæsars refused to recognize the claims of Constantine, and very soon the Roman Empire was divided among six competitors, among whom were Maximian and his son Maxentius; but Constantine finally prevailed over all his rivals and became sole Emperor.

Galerius and
Constantius—
Constantine.

2. It was during the progress of these civil wars that the Emperor Constantine became a convert to Christianity. While marching against Maxentius, it is said that Constantine saw a luminous cross in the heavens with the inscription, "By this conquer." This produced a great impression upon Constantine and his whole army. Constantine now consulted the principal teachers of Christianity, and publicly avowed the religion of Christ.

Constantine's con-
version to
Christianity.

3. Constantine overthrew Maxentius in a desperate battle at the Milvian Bridge. In attempting to make his escape, Maxentius found his death in the waters of the Tiber, and Constantine entered Rome in triumph. Internal peace and domestic tranquillity were only restored to the Roman Empire, when Constantine was left in the undisputed sovereignty of the vast Roman world, after his brother-in-law and last rival, Licinius, a zealous champion of paganism, had been defeated in several engagements and put to death.

4. Thus, after eighteen years of confusion and civil war, Constantine the Great became sole master of the Roman world, which extended from the borders of Caledonia to the frontiers of Persia, and from the Red Sea to the Atlas Mountains. The victory of Constantine the Great over his pagan rivals marked the complete triumph of Christianity over the paganism of the Roman world. Constantine now devoted himself to the establishment of Christianity on a firm basis. He summoned a Council of the Christian Church at Nice, which was attended by numerous bishops and deacons, over which the emperor presided, and in which the doctrines of Arias, who denied the divine nature of Christ, were condemned as heretical. But Constantine, by some great crimes, which stained his character, and among which was the murder of his noble son Crispus, and of his wife Fausta, showed that the doctrines of the crucified Redeemer had little influence in restraining his savage and ferocious disposition.

5. After defeating the Goths and the Sarmatians, the Emperor Constantine returned to Rome, where he was coldly received and insulted by the people for abandoning the religion of his ancestors. Provoked at this treatment, and in order to have his residence nearer the centre of his dominions, Constantine removed the seat of government

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of the Roman Empire from Rome to Byzantium, which since that time has been called Constantinople, or City of Constantine, in honor of the great emperor. (A. D., 336.)

6. After a memorable and glorious reign of thirty-one years, Constantine the Great, the first Roman emperor who professed Christianity, died at Nicomedia, in Asia Minor. (A. D., 337.)

Death of
Constantine
the Great.

CHAPTER XLVI.

REIGN OF CONSTANTIUS II. (A. D. 337-361.)—REIGN OF JULIAN THE APOSTATE (A. D. 361-363.)—REIGN OF JOVIAN (A. D. 363-364.)

1. After the death of Constantine the Great, the Roman Empire was by his orders divided among his three sons, Constant, Constantine II., and Constantius II., and his two nephews, Dalmatius and Hannibalianus. The consequence of this division was sixteen years of confusion and anarchy, during which the Roman Empire was disturbed by usurpation, insurrections, and civil wars; and internal tranquillity was only restored when Constantius II. became sole master of the Roman world, after all his rivals and several usurpers had perished. (A. D., 358.)

The Sons of
Constantine
—Confusion
and Civil
War—Con-
stantius II.

2. While Constantius II., after obtaining the sole sovereignty of the Roman Empire, was in the East, conducting a war against the Persians, his cousin Julian was winning great renown by his victories over the German tribes who had invaded Gaul. After defeating the Germans near Troyes, at Sens, and at Strasburg, Julian secured peace to Gaul, when his soldiers, elated by victory, proclaimed their general Emperor. The Roman world was only saved from the horrors of another civil war by the death of Constantius II., as he was preparing to dispute the sovereignty with Julian. (A. D., 361.)

Julian's Vic-
tories over
the Germans
in Gaul.

3. Julian had been educated at Athens, where he had imbibed a fondness for the pagan philosophy and religion of the Grecians; and when he became Emperor he renounced the Christian religion and became a pagan, acquiring from that circumstance the surname of "the Apostate." Julian was, however, a just, wise, and virtuous monarch, the only blemish on his character being his renunciation of Christianity and conversion to paganism. He was, however, possessed of an excessive share of vanity; and he seemed more desirous of being considered a philosopher than a sovereign. Julian sought to revive fallen paganism, and labored with great zeal to undo what had been done by the great Constantine. Julian was, however, too good and too wise to engage in a violent persecution of those who professed Christianity, so he allowed all his subjects the same right to opinion which he claimed for himself; but he attacked the holy religion of the Redeemer in writing, and endeavored to bring it into disrepute by ridicule. Not content, however, with opposing the Christians with the weapons of argument and ridicule, the emperor enacted several disqualifying laws by which he deprived the Christians of wealth, knowledge, and power. He also removed Christians from all civil and military offices, filled their places with pagans, and ordered the Christian schools to be closed.

4. For the purpose of disproving the prophecy of Christ, Julian the Apostate attempted to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem, and to restore the Jewish worship; but this design of the emperor was frustrated, it is said, by the miraculous explosion of fire from the earth, driving away the workmen, and compelling them to abandon their work.

5. In a war with the Persians, the Emperor Julian advanced victoriously into the very heart of Persia; but

Character of Julian—His opposition to the Christian religion.

Julian's attempt to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem.

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the Persians, defeated in the field, laid waste the country, so that the Roman army, exhausted by hunger, was finally forced to retreat. In a skirmish between the retreating army and the Persian light cavalry, Julian received a wound, of which he died the same night. (A. D., 363.)

Julian's invasion of Persia—His retreat and death.

6. After the death of Julian the Apostate, the army raised the virtuous Jovian, a Pannonian, to the imperial dignity. Upon his ascension to the throne, Jovian concluded a dishonorable peace with Persia, by which a large portion of the Roman possessions in Asia were given up.

Dishonorable peace with Persia.

7. The Emperor Jovian, who avowed Christianity, restored that holy religion; but he secured the good will of his pagan subjects by allowing them toleration for their worship. The zeal of the people for the Christian religion fully attested how ineffectual were the efforts of the apostate Julian for the restoration of fallen paganism, as the heathen temples were immediately deserted and the heathen priests were left alone at their altars. After a reign of seven months, the good Jovian was accidentally suffocated by the fumes of burning charcoal while sleeping in a damp room. (A. D., 364.)

Restoration of Christianity.

CHAPTER XLVII.

HISTORY OF ROME—BARBARIAN INROADS, AND THE FALL OF THE WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. VALENTINIAN, Jovian's successor on the imperial throne, divided the Roman Empire, retaining the Western provinces for himself, and bestowing the eastern on his brother Valens. From this time the Roman world was divided into the Eastern and Western Empires, although they were afterwards

Division of the Roman Empire.

transiently reunited. Valentinian made Milan his capital, while Valens held his court at Constantinople.

2. The inroads of the barbarians upon the northern and eastern frontiers of the Roman dominions now became more formidable and dangerous than ever before; the Picts and Scots harassed Britain; the Saxons began their piracies on the Northern seas; the German tribe of the Allemani ravaged Gaul; and the Goths crossed the Danube and ravaged Thrace. The Emperor Valentinian, who checked the inroads of the barbarians on all sides, died in the year 375, A. D.

The Barbarian inroads.

3. After Valentinian's death, the Gothic nations had been almost annihilated by the Huns, a savage tribe from Central Asia. After crossing the Volga and the Don, and driving before them the tribes of Eastern Europe, the Huns fell upon and vanquished the Ostrogoths, and drove them from their country. The Huns then crossed the Dneiper and the Dniester, and defeated the Visigoths and drove them from their lands.

Defeat of the Goths by the Huns.

4. The Gothic tribes who had so long defied the arms of the Romans, now appeared as suppliants on the banks of the Danube, and asked permission of Valens, the Eastern Emperor, to occupy and cultivate the waste lands of Thrace. This request was granted on condition that the Goths would resign their arms; but the Roman officers who were sent to see the enforcement of this stipulation were bribed. The Goths retained their weapons; and when they began to suffer from famine, they carried plunder and desolation through Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly. The Goths marched toward Constantinople, and defeated the army of Valens in the bloody battle of Adrianople. The emperor escaped to a hut, which, during the night, was set on fire by the Goths, and Valens was burned to death. (A. D., 378.)

The Goths in Thrace—battle of Adrianople—death of Valens.

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5. After the death of Valentinian, A. D., 375, his son Gratian became Emperor of the West. When the throne of the East became vacant by the death of Valens, Gratian assigned it to the Spaniard ^{Gratian and Theodosius.} Theodosius, who closed the war with the Goths by settling a part of that nation in the region of the Danube, and enlisting another part in the Roman armies as soldiers.

6. The Emperor Theodosius, surnamed "the Great," was a cruel persecutor of the pagans, and also of the Arian Christians. The pagans of Alexandria, ^{Persecution of the Pagans by Theodosius.} in Egypt, having attacked the Christians of that city, Theodosius ordered all the pagan temples in the city to be pulled down. He afterwards ordered all the Heathen temples throughout his empire to be destroyed. The reign of Theodosius the Great is noted for the complete triumph of the religion of the crucified Saviour over the ancient paganism.

7. The severity of the Western Emperor, Gratian, to his pagan subjects, produced an insurrection in Gaul and Britain, headed by Maximinus. Gratian was ^{Maximinus, Valentinian II., and Eugenius—Theodosius sole Emperor.} defeated and killed near Paris, and Maximinus became Emperor of the West. (A. D., 383.) Maximinus was defeated and slain by Theodosius, the Eastern Emperor, and Valentinian II. ascended the throne of the West. (A. D., 388.) Valentinian II. was murdered by the Gaul Arbogastes, whereupon the throne of the West was usurped by Eugenius. Theodosius defeated and killed the usurper, and, reuniting the Eastern and Western Empires, became sole master of the Roman World. (A. D., 394.) Four months afterward, Theodosius the Great died at Milan, A. D., 395, after appointing his elder son, Arcadius, Emperor of the East, and his younger son, Honorius, Emperor of the West.

8. Soon after the accession of Arcadius and Honorius, the Goths, under their celebrated king, Alaric, commenced

**Alaric the
Goth's inva-
sions of
Greece and
Italy.**

a fresh war against the Romans. After Alaric had ravaged nearly all of Greece, Stilicho, the able general of Honorius, marched to the aid of the Greeks. Alaric then abandoned Greece, directed his course toward Italy, and, crossing the Julian Alps, advanced toward Milan, A. D., 403. Honorius fled from his capital, but was overtaken by the Goths, and besieged by them in Asta. Stilicho hastened to the relief of the emperor, and defeated the Goths with great slaughter at Pollentia, in Northern Italy. Instead of abandoning Italy after this defeat, Alaric marched directly toward Rome, which was saved by the diligence of Stilicho; but the withdrawal of the Goths from Italy was purchased by a heavy ransom.

9. The timid Emperor Honorius, greatly alarmed at these barbarian invasions, selected the strong fortress of

**Invasion of
Italy—Stili-
cho's victory
at Florence.**

Ravenna as his residence and seat of government. No sooner was Italy freed from the ravages of Alaric and his Gothic followers, than another hostile inundation of barbarian warriors, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Sueves, Alans, and Burgundians, led by the warlike Radagaisus, appeared, and threatened Italy with slaughter and desolation. The barbarians then crossed the Alps, the Po, and the Apennines, and laid siege to Florence. But again Italy was delivered by the valiant Stilicho, who blockaded the besieging barbarians, and finally after they had greatly suffered from famine, compelled them to surrender at discretion, A. D., 406. The barbarian leader, Radagaisus, was put to death, and his followers were sold as slaves.

10. Two years after the overthrow of the barbarians at Florence (A. D., 408), Stilicho, whose abilities had delayed

**Assassina-
tion of
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the fall of the tottering Roman Empire, was treacherously assassinated by order of the jealous and ungrateful Honorius.

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Olympius, by whose advice the Emperor Honorius ordered the massacre of the families of the barbarians ^{Olympius—} throughout Italy. This horrible order was ^{Massacre of} cruelly executed, and the result of it was that ^{the barbar-} 30,000 Gothic soldiers in the Roman pay revolted, and invited Alaric to come to Italy and ^{ians in Italy.} avenge the slaughter of his countrymen.

12. At the call of his countrymen, Alaric the Goth again invaded Italy and marched directly to Rome and laid siege to the city. Rome would have ^{Alaric's} fallen into the hands of the barbarian chief, ^{Second In-} had not the Emperor Honorius yielded to his ^{vasion of} demand and purchased the retirement of the ^{Italy and} besiegers by the payment of a heavy ransom. At first ^{Capture of} Alaric demanded all the gold and silver in the city, all the ^{Rome.} rich and precious movables, and all the slaves of barbarian origin. When the Roman ambassadors asked, "If such, O King, are your terms, what do you intend to leave us." The stern chief replied, "Your lives." These severe terms were, however, somewhat modified, and Alaric agreed to abandon the siege of Rome for a large ransom of gold, silver, and various articles of valuable merchandise. Alaric then retired from the city; but as Honorius refused to comply with the stipulations of the treaty which had been concluded between the Gothic chief and the Romans, Alaric again directed his course to Rome and compelled the city to surrender. (A. D., 410.) The captured city was given up to plunder, but the Goths, professing to be Christians, spared the churches.

13. After Rome had suffered six days from the fury of the conquering Goths, the city was abandoned by them; and they marched into Southern Italy, where ^{Death and} Alaric died. The body of the barbarian chief ^{Burial of} was buried in the bed of a small stream, and ^{Alaric the} the captives who had prepared his grave were murdered ^{Goth,} that the Romans might never find the place of his sepulchre. (A. D., 410.)

14. Upon the death of Honorius (A. D., 423), his youthful nephew, Valentinian III., became Emperor of the West.

The Visigoths in Spain. The Goths soon withdrew from Italy, and that part of the nation known as Visigoths migrated to Spain, where they founded a kingdom of their own.

15. The Vandals, another tribe of Northern barbarians, led by their renowned king, Genseric, passed over from Spain into Africa, conquered the Roman provinces there, and established a kingdom which lasted more than a century. (A. D., 439.)

The Vandals in Africa. 16. About this time Attila, King of the Huns, a powerful Asiatic tribe, was spreading terror and desolation wherever he directed his course. Attila, justly called "the Scourge of God," subdued the Scythian and German tribes, defeated the Eastern Emperor, Theodosius II., in three bloody battles, devastated Thrace, Macedonia, and Greece, and at length invaded Gaul, where he was defeated by the united armies of the Romans and the Goths in the sanguinary battle of Chalons, in which 162,000 of the barbarians were slain. (A. D., 451.)

17. Notwithstanding their defeat at Chalons, the Huns invaded Northern Italy the following year. (A. D., 452.)

Hunnish Invasion of Northern Italy—Founding of Venice. The fugitives who fled in terror from their homes founded the city and republic of Venice on a number of small islands on the northern shores of the Adriatic sea. Soon after this invasion of Northern Italy, Attila died from the effects of intemperance. (A. D. 452.)

18. The Emperor Valentinian III. was assassinated by Maximus, whose wife he had corrupted (A. D. 455).

Genseric the Vandal's invasion of Italy and capture of Rome. Maximus then became Emperor of the West; and on the death of his wife, which occurred soon afterward, he compelled Eudoxia, the widow of Valentinian III., to marry him. In

revenge, Eudoxia invited Genseric, the Vandal king of Northern Africa, to invade Italy. Genseric and his Vandal followers accordingly crossed the Mediterranean sea into Italy and besieged Rome. (A. D., 455.) The Emperor Maximus was killed in a tumult which arose in the city. Rome soon fell into the hands of the besieging Vandals, who plundered the city of what the Goths had left. After the victorious Vandals had pillaged the city of Romulus fourteen days and nights, they withdrew; but their vessel laden with the plunder of Rome was wrecked on its passage to Africa.

19. During the twenty-one years after the pillage of Rome by the Vandals, eight emperors successively occupied the throne of the West. The first of these was a Gaul named Avitus, who had raised to the throne through the instrumentality of Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths. Avitus was dethroned by the Sueve Ricimer, the commander of the barbarian auxiliaries, and Majorian was invested with the imperial purple. Majorian was deposed by the soldiers, and Severus was elevated to the throne by Ricimer, who retained all the real power in his own hands. Severus was soon deposed, whereupon the Eastern Emperor, Leo, appointed Anthemius Emperor of the West. Anthemius was put to death, and Olybrius was raised to the throne. The last three Emperors of the West were Glycerius, Nepos, and Romulus Augustulus.

20. As the strength of the Romans diminished, the insolence of the barbarians increased; and finally, when the demand of the barbarians for a third part of the lands of Italy was rejected, Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, a German tribe, dethroned the Emperor Romulus Augustulus, in the year 476, A. D., and, abolishing the title and office of Emperor of the West, assumed the title of King of Italy. Thus ended the Western Empire of the Romans: the once proud city

Avitus,
Majorian,
Severus,
Anthemius,
Olybrius,
Glycerius,
Nepos, and
Romulus
Augustulus.

Overthrow
of the West-
ern Roman
Empire.

of Romulus was occupied by barbarian warriors, and a barbarian chief was seated on the throne of the Cæsars. The Eastern, or Byzantine Empire, sometimes called the Greek Empire, continued to flourish for nearly a thousand years longer.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE DARK AGES.

ITALY AND THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE.—ITALY UNDER THE HERULI AND THE OSTROGOTHS.—THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE, UNDER JUSTINIAN.

1. ODOACER, chief of the Heruli, as King of Italy, fixed his capital at Ravenna. He distributed the lands of Italy among his followers, making the peasants who lived upon the lands their slaves. Odoacer however, allowed the old Roman laws and institutions to remain, and retained the Roman magistrates in their offices.

2. In the year 538, A. D., after Odoacer had reigned, not without renown, twelve years, Italy was invaded by the renowned Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths. Odoacer was defeated and made a prisoner, and the kingdom of the Heruli in Italy was overthrown. In violation of his plighted word, Theodoric caused the captive Odoacer to be put to death at a riotous banquet. On the overthrow of Odoacer, Theodoric the Ostrogoth became King of Italy. He established his seat of government at Ravenna. Theodoric employed the original inhabitants of Italy in agriculture and commerce, while to his Ostrogothic followers he assigned the duty of defending the state. Like Odoacer, Theodoric allowed the ancient Roman laws and institutions to remain, encouraged agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; and Italy enjoyed great prosperity under his rule. Italy continued prosperous under the successors of Theodoric; but in the year 541, A. D., Belisarius, the

distinguished general of the illustrious Justinian, Emperor of the East, invaded Italy, overthrew the Ostrogothic monarchy, and united Italy with the Byzantine Empire.

3. For some time the Eastern Roman, or Greek Empire, often called the Byzantine Empire, had been distracted by domestic dissensions, which were only ended when Justinian, a man of humble origin, ascended the throne. During the first five years of his reign, Justinian waged an unsuccessful war against the Persians. Justinian's armies were never led by him in person, and were composed of barbarian mercenaries,—namely, Seythians, Persians, Heruli, Vandals, Goths, and Thracians,—the inhabitants of the empire having long been forbidden to bear arms.

accession of
Justinian—
War with
Persia—Justinian's
armies.

4. The Emperor Justinian embraced the determination of conquering the kingdom of the Vandals in Africa, and also that of the Ostrogoths in Italy, and of restoring the vast empire of the great Constantine. Justinian's illustrious general, Belisarius, landed in Africa, in September, 533, at the head of 15,000 soldiers, and was joyfully received by the Africans, who were anxious to shake off the yoke of Vandal supremacy. Gelimer, the Vandal king, was twice routed in battle, and before the close of November the monarchy of the Vandals in Africa was overthrown. Gelimer passed the remainder of his days contentedly in Calicut, in Asia Minor; and the dominion of the Greek Emperor was extended over Africa proper.

Conquest of
the Vandal
Kingdom in
Africa by
Belisarius.

5. In the year 535, A. D., Belisarius landed in Sicily at the head of 7,500 Byzantine soldiers, and subdued that island in one campaign; and in the following year (A. D. 536) he landed in Southern Italy, where he was hailed as a deliverer by the old Roman population. Belisarius obtained possession of Rome, in which city he was besieged for a year by the valiant Ostrogothic king, Vitiges, who failed to reduce

Subversion
of the Ostro-
gothic King-
dom in Italy.

the city; but nearly the entire population of the city perished from famine. Vitiges and his Ostrogoths were themselves next besieged in their own capital, Ravenna, which they were finally compelled to surrender, and Vitiges was carried a prisoner to the Byzantine capital; but he was treated with remarkable generosity by the Emperor Justinian, who allowed the captive king to pass the remainder of his days in affluence in Constantinople.

6. In the year 540, A. D., another war broke out between the Byzantine and Persian Empires, and Belisarius **Another war between the Byzantine and Persian empires.** was summoned from Italy to take the field against the Persians. For a period of sixteen years (A. D., 540-556) Justinian waged war against the Persian monarch, Khosrou the Great. Hostilities were conducted with the most unrelenting obstinacy on both sides. After a fearful destruction of human life, peace was finally made in 556, leaving the frontiers of the two empires nearly the same as they were before the war.

7. Belisarius was at length treated with ingratitude by the Emperor Justinian, in whose service he had conquered two kingdoms. On the recall of Belisarius **Justinian's treatment of Belisarius—Final conquest of Italy.** from Italy to operate against the Persians, the Ostrogoths recovered their supremacy in Italy. Belisarius was sent back to Italy to recover what had been lost, but he was soon recalled by the jealous emperor, and the command of the Byzantine army in Italy was assigned to Narses, who soon and unexpectedly proved himself a great general like Belisarius. After many bloody encounters, and after two valiant Ostrogothic kings, Totila and Tejas, had been defeated and slain in battle, the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy was finally subverted, and the dominions of the Eastern Emperor were enlarged by the conquest and annexation of Italy. (A. D., 554.) Narses, as the Byzan-

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tine Emperor's lieutenant, governed Italy from Ravenna with the title of Exarch.

8. In his old age Justinian again had recourse to the services of his aged general, Belisarius, to drive away the barbarian Bulgarians and Slavonians, who had approached the gates of Constantinople. At the head of a small but valiant band, Belisarius repelled the barbarians, but the ^{Repulse of the Barbarians—Justinian's ingratitude,} plaudes which the old hero received from the people again excited the jealousy of Justinian; and the ungrateful Emperor, charging his faithful servant with aspiring to the imperial throne, caused his eyes to be put out and all of his possessions to be confiscated; and the illustrious general, who had subdued two kingdoms, was often seen blind, and led by a child, begging alms in the streets to support his living.

9. The period of Justinian's reign, known as the "Era of Justinian," is one of the most important epochs in the history of the world. The conquests of Justinian were not his greatest glory; but what has immortalized his memory was his celebrated compilation of the Roman laws, known as the ^{"The Pandects and Code of Justinian" Church of St. Sophia.} "Pandects and Code of Justinian," which were arranged by his illustrious minister, Tribonian, who at the head of a commission of ten eminent lawyers, had been appointed for the purpose by the emperor. Justinian obtained silkworms from China, and introduced the manufacture of silk into Europe. He also built the Church of St. Sophia, at Constantinople; but he stained his character by his persecutions of the pagans and the Arian Christians.

10. The Emperor Justinian died in the year 565, A.D., at the age of eighty-three years. After his death the Eastern Empire was again disturbed by domestic dissensions. The wickedness and depravity ^{Death of Justinian—Decline of the Greek} of the imperial court at Constantinople, and the ^{Decline of the Greek} obscured the lustre that had been shed upon

the empire during the reign of Justinian. Emperors ascended the throne by the most revolting crimes. The Greek Empire rapidly declined after the death of Justinian. The emperor Heraclius, in the beginning of the Seventh century, engaged in three great expeditions against the Persians, in which he displayed the greatest military ability, thoroughly defeated Khosron II., the great Persian king, and effectually broke the power of the second great Persian monarchy.

CHAPTER XLIX.

THE DARK AGES—(Continued).

THE LOMBARD KINGDOM IN NORTHERN ITALY.

1. IN the year 568, A. D., the Lombards, or Longobards (men with long beards), who had for some time occupied Pannonia (now Hungary), led by their king, Alboin, crossed the Alps and settled themselves in the portion of Northern Italy which received from them the name of Lombardy. They took Pavia by storm after a siege of three years, and made it the capital of the Lombard kingdom. The Lombards were among the rudest and fiercest of the German tribes.

2. The Lombards treated the conquered people with harshness, and deprived them of their possessions; but they also commenced to devote themselves to the cultivation of their newly-acquired lands, and began to make some progress in civilization. The warlike Lombard king, Alboin, was assassinated at the instigation of his wife, the beautiful Rosamunda, in revenge for compelling her during a festival, to drink from the goblet which had been fashioned from the skull of her father, the king of the Gepids, whom Alboin had some years before killed in battle. The Lombard kingdom in Northern Italy lasted more than two centuries, when it was subverted by Charlemagne, the great Carovingian monarch of the Franks. (A. D., 774.)

Migration of the Lombards to Northern Italy.

The conquered people—Assassination of Alboin.

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CHAPTER L.

THE DARK AGES.—(Continued).

THE ANGLES AND SAXONS IN BRITAIN.

1. UNDER the rule of the Romans, the inhabitants of Britain became partially civilized and entirely lost their warlike spirit. When about the middle of the fifth century after Christ, tottering Rome was obliged to withdraw her armies from Britain and her other remote provinces to protect herself against the Northern barbarians, the peaceful Britons, unable to defend themselves against the savage Picts and Scots, of Caledonia (now Scotland), called in the aid of the Angles and Saxons, two German tribes from the region embraced by modern Schleswig and Holstein. Accordingly, in the year 448, A. D., a party of about 50 Saxons, under two leaders, Hengist and Horsa landed in Britain. Hordes of Saxons and Angles continued to pour into Britain, and assisted the Britons in driving the Picts and Scots back into Caledonia.

2. The Anglo-Saxons soon converted the beautiful lands of Britain for themselves. They accordingly fell upon the defenceless Britons, whom they killed or drove away. In one of the conflicts between the Saxons and the Britons, the Saxon chief, Horsa, was killed. Many of the unfortunate Britons fled to the mountains of Wales and Cornwall: while others crossed the English Channel and settled in that part of France which is named from them Brittany, or Bretagne. The present inhabitants of Wales, Cornwall, and Brittany are the descendants of the ancient Britons.

3. After the Anglo-Saxons had obtained possession of Britain, they established seven small kingdoms collectively designated the "Saxon Heptarchy." The seven kingdoms were Kent; Sussex, or South Saxony; Wessex, or West Saxony; Essex or East Saxony; East Anglia; Mercia, and Northumberland.

4. Towards the close of the sixth century of the Christian era, Pope Gregory the Great commissioned the Benedictine monk, Augustine, to preach the religion of the crucified Redeemer to the pagan Angles and Saxons in Britain. On Christmas day, 597, A. D., 10,000 Anglo-Saxons were baptized and Augustine became Archbishop of Canterbury. The Anglo-Saxons soon abandoned their idols, and embraced the religion of the Cross. In the year 827, A. D., the seven kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy were united into one great state called Angle-land or England.

CHAPTER LI.

THE DARK AGES—(Continued.)

THE SARACEN EMPIRE.—MOHAMMED.—HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. THE Arabs, who are descended from Ishmael, "the wild man of the desert," a son of Abraham, have always been as free as the air they breathe. The ancient religion of the Arabs was Sabaism, or Star-worship. Many of the Arab tribes professed Judaism, some Christianity, and others the Persian religion of Zoroaster. There, in those deserts of Arabia, these wild people have roamed for ages, in proud independence, never bowing to the yoke of a foreign conqueror.

2. About the beginning of the seventh century of the Christian era, a new religion began to be preached to the Arabians by an impostor called Mohammed, or Mahomet, a descendant of the priestly tribe of the Koreishites, who claimed to be descended from Koreish, the most distinguished of Ishmael's twelve sons. In his youth, Mohammed had made journeys as a merchant through the desert with the caravans, during which he became convinced of the superiority of the Christian and Jewish religions over the Arabian idolatry. Mahomet exhorted his countrymen to abandon their gross idolatrous worship, and to recognize and reverence the

The Arabs and their ancient religion.

Appearance of Mahomet.

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One True God, the Creator and Ruler of the entire universe. It was believed by his followers that Mohammed was divinely inspired, and that the angel Gabriel was the medium of communication with the Prophet, to whom, during a period of twenty years, occasional revelations are said to have been made. As Mohammed could neither read nor write, the revelations which are said to have been made to him, were committed to writing by amanuenses; and two years after the Prophet's death they were published as the "Koran," or Mohammedan Bible.

3. At the age of forty, Mohammed proclaimed the cardinal principle of his creed, "There is but one God, and Mohammed is his Prophet." At first, no one would believe Mohammed, with the excep- **The Hegira.** tion of his wife, Ayesha; his father-in-law, Abubekir; and his son-in-law, Ali; and in a tumult at Mecca, in the year 622, A. D., the impostor was compelled to flee from that city to Medina. The flight of the Prophet from Mecca is called "the Hegira," and is the point from which the Mohammedans reckon time, as the Christians do from the birth of Christ.

4. Medina, Mohammed was received by his converts with demonstrations of joy, and the whole city soon recognized him as its chief and prophet. Mohammed now declared that the new religion was to be established by the sword. The number of his disciples increased daily; and soon they ravaged the country in small bands, and extended the religion of the Prophet by force. After many victories, Mohammed obtained forcible possession of Mecca, and the inhabitants of that city soon acknowledged him as their temporal and spiritual ruler. All Arabia soon adopted the new religion, called Islam. Mohammed was grave and dignified in his manner, and was possessed of simplicity, benevolence, and other domestic virtues. He died in the eleventh year of the Hegira, A. D., 632.

**Progress of
Islam—its
establishment—Death
of Mohammed.**

5. Mohammed was succeeded by his father-in-law, Abubekir, who was styled the First Caliph. Abubekir was the first convert to the religion of the Prophet, and after he became Caliph he collected the materials which had been prepared by Mohammed while at Medina into a book called "the Koran." The fundamental points of Judaism and Christianity, together with maxims derived from the fables, legends, and traditions of Arabian and Persian mythology, are among the doctrines taught by the holy book of the Koran. Mohammed required frequent prayers, fasts, giving of alms, and pilgrimages to Mecca. One great commandment of the Koran was to diffuse Islam by every means, and to compel all nations to accept it with fire and sword. Those who sacrificed their lives for the propagation of the new faith were promised a paradise of sensual enjoyments. Abubekir's celebrated general, Kaled, called "The Sword of God," subdued in a short time the few Arabian tribes who had abandoned the new faith, and reestablished the religion of Mohammed over the whole of Arabia.

6. After all Arabia had received the Moslem faith, it was resolved to carry the religion of the Koran beyond the borders of Arabia; and preparations were immediately made to invade the Byzantine and Persian Empires, both of which had been reduced to a condition of the most deplorable weakness from the long and desolating wars that had raged between them. Kaled invaded Persia with an immense army; but he was soon recalled to assist in the conquest of Syria, which had been invaded by several large Saracen armies. The great cities of Palmyra and Bozrah submitted to the invaders. Damascus was besieged by the Saracens, and finally carried by storm. On the very day of the capture of Damascus, Abubekir died, August 3, 634.

**Invasion of
Syria—Siege
and capture
of Damascus
—Death of
Abubekir.**

7. Abubekir was succeeded as Caliph by Omar. After the fall of Damascus, Emessa and Baalbec or Heliopolis were also reduced by the Saracen arms. The Greek Emperor Heraclius made great efforts to save Syria to his empire; but his armies suffered an overwhelming defeat from the Saracen forces under Kaled in a great battle on the banks of the Yermouk, where 70,000 Byzantine soldiers laid down their lives, A. D., 636. After a siege of four months, Jerusalem surrendered to Omar, who caused the ground on which the Temple of Solomon had stood to be cleared of its rubbish and prepared for the erection of a Mohammedian mosque, or temple, which still bears the name of the Caliph. The reduction of the great cities of Aleppo and Antioch, in the year 638, A. D., completed the conquest of Syria by the Saracens.

8. While the events just related were occurring in Syria, other Saracen generals were engaged in the subjugation of Persia. In the year of the battle of Yermouk, A. D., 636, one of the bloodiest battles recorded in history was fought between the Saracens and the Persians on the plain of Cadesiah, the Arabians losing 7,500 men and the Persians 100,000. This great battle broke the power of the Persian monarchy, and five years afterwards, A. D., 641, the Persian king, Yesdejird, like Darius Codomannus of old, having fled before his conquerors to the mountains, was assassinated by his own officers. With the death of Yesdejird ended forever the famous dynasty of the Sassanids and the second great Persian Empire; and Persia yielded to the Saracen dominion.

9. In the meantime, Egypt, then a province of the Byzantine or Greek Empire, had been invaded by the Saracen forces under Amru. The Copts of Upper Egypt, descendants of the ancient Egyptians, joined the Arabians against

Accession of
Omar—Fall
of Jerusalem
—Conquest of
Syria.

Invasion of
Persia—
Battle of
Cadesiah—
Conquest of
Persia.

Invasion of
Egypt—Cap-
ture of Mem-
phis and
Alexandria.

the Greeks. Memphis surrendered to the Saracens after a siege of seven months; but Alexandria held out longer, and only fell into the hands of the Arabians in the year 640, A. D., after an obstinate defense. When Amru asked Omar how he should dispose of the great library in Alexandria, the Caliph replied, "If these writings agree with the Koran, they are useless and need not be preserved: if they disagree, they are pernicious and should be destroyed." Accordingly that great store of ancient learning was sacrificed to the bigotry and fanaticism of the Saracen monarch.

10. The fall of Alexandria decided the fate of Egypt; which country then became a province of the Saracen Empire. The Saracens founded in Egypt a new city which they named Cairo. In the year 644, A. D., Omar's life and eventful reign were terminated by the dagger of an assassin. During Omar's reign of ten years, the Saracens reduced 36,000 cities and villages, demolished 4,000 Christian churches, and erected 1,500 Mohammedan mosques.

11. Omar was succeeded in the Caliphate by Othman, Mohammed's early secretary, who published a new edition of the Koran. During Othman's reign of eleven years, the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes submitted to the Saracen power. Othman was assassinated on his throne in the year 655, A. D., while he covered his heart with the Koran.

12. Upon the assassination of Othman, Ali, Mohammed's son-in-law, became Caliph. During the reign of Ali, the Mohammedan world became divided into two great religious parties, the Sunnites and the Shiites. A civil war now broke out among the Saracens; and Ali was assassinated, and the throne of the Caliphs was seized by the family of the Ommyyades. (A. D., 660.)

Conquest of
Egypt—
Founding of
Cairo—Assas-
sination of
Omar.

Accession of
Othman—
Conquest of
Cyprus and
Rhodes.

Accession of
Ali—Civil
war among
the Saracens.

13. The first Caliph of the dynasty of the Ommiyades was Moawiyah, who made the beautiful city of Damascus the capital of the Saracen Empire. Under the Ommiyades, the empire of the Saracens and the religion of the Koran was carried into Northern Hindoostan and also into a great portion of Tartary.

Damascus made the Saracen capital.

14. Under the Ommiyades, the Saracens made several unsuccessful attempts to conquer the Byzantine or Greek Empire. During a period of seven years (A.D., 668–675), Constantinople withstood seven attacks, and was only saved by the newly invented

Unsuccessful attacks on Constantinople.

Greek fire. About forty years afterwards (A. D., 717), the Byzantine capital was again besieged by the Saracens; but after a siege of more than a year, it was relieved by the Bulgarians, who attacked the Saracens and inflicted upon them a crushing defeat.

15. Under the Ommiyades, the Arabs prosecuted with vigor their conquests in Northern Africa. After a heroic resistance of nine years, Carthage was taken by storm, and finally and completely destroyed.

Destruction of Carthage—Conquest of Northern Africa.

(A. D., 698.) The Saracens encountered a stubborn resistance from the Moorish and Berber races, whom they finally subdued in the year 709, A. D.; and all Northern Africa became a portion of the vast Saracen Empire. The Moorish tribes, resembling roving Arabs in their customs and manners, adopted the name, language, and religion of their conquerors.

16. No sooner had the Saracens completed the conquest of Northern Africa, than they were invited into Spain by Count Julian, a Spanish noble, in revenge for an injury which he had received from the tyrant Roderick, the Visigothic king of Spain.

Saracen invasion of Spain—Conquest of Spain.

Accordingly in the year 711, A. D., Tarik, the Arabian general, with a large army, crossed the strait between Africa and Spain which has ever after been called Gibralt.

tar, meaning Gebel al Tarik, or Hill of Tarik. After landing in Spain, Tarik overthrew Roderick in the great seven days' battle of Xeres de la Frontera, which terminated the Visigothic monarchy in Spain. (A. D., 712.) Roderick escaped from the battle-field, but found his death in the waters of the Guadalquivir. After a gallant defense, Merida, the Spaniards' capital, surrendered to the victorious Saracens, whose dominion was then established in the whole of Spain. (A. D., 718.)

17. After the conquest of Spain, the Saracens resolved to push their arms across the Pyrenees, and to extend their dominion and religion over France, and, if possible, over all Europe. The Gallic tribes of Southern France submitted without resistance to the conquering Arabs; and Abdelrahman, the Saracen governor of Spain, entered France at the head of a large Arabian and Moorish army, and marched triumphantly northward, desolating the country along his route with fire and sword, to the very centre of France, and established his camp between Tours and Poitiers. But now the confederacy of Franks, which had long been torn by dissensions, united to oppose the common enemy of Europe and Christianity. In the year 732, A. D., Charles Martel, "the Hammer," at the head of a powerful army of Franks, met Abdelrahman and his Saracens near Tours; and after a great battle of seven days, during which several hundred thousand Moslems perished, the victory was decided in favor of the Christian Franks. The tide of Mussulman conquest was rolled back, and Europe was saved to the Christian religion.

18. The Saracen power had already been greatly weakened by domestic dissensions and civil wars; and in the year 752, A. D., twenty years after the defeat of the Saracens by the Franks, the dynasty of the Ommyyades was overthrown, and the family of the Abbasides, descendants of

Saracen invasion of France—Terrible defeat of the Saracens.

Overthrow of the Ommyyades—The Caliphate of Cordova.

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Abbas, the uncle of Mohammed, seized the throne of the Saracen Caliphate. Abdelrahman, the only one of the Ommiyades who escaped destruction, fled to Spain, in which country he founded the independent Caliphate of Cordova, which lasted 250 years.

19. Under Al Mansur, the second Caliph of the Abbasside dynasty, the Saracens built on the banks of the Tigris a new city which they named Bagdad, and which became the capital of the Saracen Empire and the great centre of Arabian civilization, learning, wealth and refinement. **Bagdad founded and made the Saracen capital.**

20. During the reign of Haroun al Raschid (Aaron the Just) and several of his successors, the Arabs carried science and literature to a very high degree of perfection. Bagdad, Cairo and Cordova became famous as the seats of learning, while the greater part of Europe was slumbering in the darkness of barbarism. The Arabs taught the arts, sciences, literature and poetry wherever they established their dominion and religion. Architecture and music flourished in all the Arabian cities of Asia, Africa and Spain. Agriculture, industry and commerce were encouraged. **Civilization of the Arabs.**

21. The extensive Saracen Empire, torn by religious and political dissensions, soon declined in power and importance, and before the close of the ninth century it fell to pieces; and numerous petty Mohammedan kingdoms arose from the fragments of the once vast empire of the Caliphs. **Decline and dissolution of the Saracen Empire.** Although the civil power of the Saracens was thus subverted, the religion of Mohammed remained in all the countries in which it had been established.

22. Under the rule of the Mohammedans, Spain enjoyed a greater degree of prosperity and a higher state of civilization than at any previous period. But the Saracen power in Spain soon began to decline; and in the year 1031, A. D., the Caliphate of Spain. **Decline and overthrow of the Saracen power in Spain.**

Cordova was dissolved into a number of small states, which were gradually conquered by the Christians from their mountainous seats of the Asturias, in the northern part of the Spanish peninsula. In the course of time arose the Christian kingdoms of Aragon, Castile, Leon and Portugal, which waged continual wars against the Mohammedan kingdom of Granada, in the south of Spain. The kingdom of Granada was founded in the year 1238, A. D., and conquered in 1492 by the united power of Aragon and Castile. With the conquest of Granada ended the Mohammedan power in Spain, after it had existed in that country eight centuries.

CHAPTER LI.

THE DARK AGES—(Continued.)

THE FRANK EMPIRE.—THE REIGNS OF THE MEROVINGIANS.—THE REIGNS OF THE CARLOVINGIANS.

1. In the fifth century of the Christian era, the Franks, or Freemen, conducted by their warlike king, Clovis, invaded Northern Gaul, subdued the country, and, at Soissons, put to death Syagrius, the last Roman governor in Gaul. Clovis soon conquered all the country between the Loire and the Seine, and fixed his capital at Soissons, after which he proceeded against the Allemanni on the Rhine, whom he overcame in the battle of Tolbiac. (A. D., 496.) During the battle, Clovis made a vow that if the God worshipped by his wife, who was a Christian princess, would give him the victory, he would embrace Christianity. Clovis and 5,000 of his subjects were baptized in the Rhine, on Christmas day, in the year 496, A. D.

2. Christianity had little or no influence on the blood-thirsty disposition of Clovis. He put to death all the

**Conquest of
Gaul by Clo-
vis, King of
the Franks.**

chiefs or kings who fell into his hands; and, ^{Savage character of Clovis.} in order to secure himself against rivals, he caused his nearest relations to be murdered. Clovis, who had already made Paris the capital of his kingdom, died in the year 511, A. D.

3. After the death of Clovis, his dominions were divided among his sons, and thus were formed the three kingdoms: Austrasia, east of the Rhine; Neustria, between the Rhine and the Loire; and Aquitaine, between the Loire and the Pyrenees. ^{Division of the Frank Kingdom.} These three kingdoms were afterwards united under one sovereign, and were enlarged by the conquest and annexation of Burgundy.

4. Clovis and his descendants are called Merovingians, from Merovæus, their supposed ancestor. The reigns of the Merovingian kings were a period of crime and continual bloodshed. As soon as a king ^{Character of the Merovingian Kings.} received his crown he caused his male relatives to be put to death. The consequence of these murders was that the Merovingian race was reduced to weakness and imbecility; and finally the ministers of the kings, called Mayors of the Palace, usurped all the powers of sovereignty, leaving to the monarchs nothing more than the empty title of royalty.

5. At length Pepin d'Heristal, Mayor of the Palace, united the three Frankish kingdoms, Austrasia, Neustria, and Burgundy, and made the Mayoralty hereditary in his family; from which time the ^{Pepin d'Heristal and Chas. Martel.} Merovingian kings ruled only in name, while all the sovereign power was exercised by the Mayors of the Palace. Pepin d'Heristal was succeeded in the Mayoralty by his son, the heroic and valiant Charles Martel, who by his great victory over the Saracens proved to be the saviour of Christianity in Europe.

6. On the death of Charles Martel, his son, Pepin the Little, succeeded to the Mayoralty. Pepin put an end to

Usurpation of Pepin the Little—Beginning of the Pope's temporal power. the nominal reign of the Merovingian dynasty by deposing the imbecile Childeric III., and causing himself to be proclaimed King of the Franks. (A. D., 751.) Pepin the Little and his descendants are called Carolingians. The

Pope confirmed the dethronement of the Merovingian race, hoping thereby to secure the assistance of Pepin against the Lombards. In return for this favor from the Head of the Church, Pepin endowed the Pope with a large portion of the Adriatic coast of Italy southward from Ravenna. This was the beginning of the temporal power of the Pope.

Boniface or Winfried—Christianity among the Germans. 7. During the reign of Pepin the Little, Boniface, or Winfried, the active and zealous English Missionary, first promulgated the doctrine of a crucified Redeemer to the savage inhabitants of Germany; and through his efforts churches and bishoprics were established in that country. Boniface preached the Gospel of Christ in Hesse, and displayed such zeal that he was surnamed "The Apostle of the Germans." After being made Archbishop of Mayence, Winfried, in his old age, undertook a mission to the pagan Finlanders, who put the noble missionary to a violent death.

Accession of Charlemagne or Charles the Great. 8. Pepin the Little died in the year 768, A. D., and left the Frank kingdom to his two sons, Charles and Carloman. On the death of Carloman, in the year 871, Charles seized upon all the Frankish dominions, and thus became sole sovereign of the vast Frank monarchy. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, as he is called; was one of the greatest and wisest monarchs of the Middle Ages, as he did much for the establishment of Christianity and the revival of civilization in Europe.

9. After crushing a revolt of the Aquitanians, Charlemagne led an army against the Saxons of Northern Ger-

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many. Charlemagne took the fortress of **Charlemagne's First War with the Saxons.** Eresburg, destroyed the pagan idols, and in the year 772 compelled the Saxons to accept a treaty of peace. But this peace was of short duration; and for thirty-two years Charlemagne waged war against the Saxons, for the purpose of punishing them for their repeated aggressions, and extending his empire and the Christian religion.

10. After his first war with the Saxons, Charlemagne became involved in a war with the Lombards of Northern Italy. The Lombard king, Desiderius, had given protection to the widow of Carloman, the deceased brother of Charlemagne; and when Pope Adrian I. refused to anoint her sons Kings of the Franks, Desiderius threatened an invasion of the Papal dominions. Upon the Pope's appeal for aid, Charlemagne crossed the Alps into Italy with a large army, and compelled Desiderius to shut himself up in his capital, Pavia, which surrendered to the Franks after a six months' siege. Desiderius was made a prisoner, and spent the remainder of his days in a cloister; and Charlemagne, placing upon his own head the iron crown of the Lombards, assumed the title of King of Italy, thus putting an end to the Lombard monarchy which had existed in Northern Italy for two centuries. (A. D., 774.) **Conquest of the Lombard Kingdom.**

11. While Charlemagne was in Italy, the Saxons expelled the Frank garrisons from their territory. But after the conquest of the Lombards, Charlemagne again led a large army into the Saxon country, subdued the barbarians a second time, and compelled the Saxon chiefs to agree to the peace of Paderborn. The warlike Saxon duke, Wido, refusing to accept the treaty, fled to the Danes. (A. D., 777.) **Charlemagne's Second War with the Saxons.**

12. In the year 778, A. D., Charlemagne went to the assistance of the Christians of Spain against the Sara-

cens. He dismantled Pampeluna and Saragossa, and united all that portion of Spain between the Ebro and the Pyrenees to the great Frank Empire. As the Frankish monarch was recrossing the Pyrenees into France, his rear-guard, under the command of his nephew Roland, was attacked and cut to pieces in the pass of Roncevalles. Roland himself was among the slain. The battle of Roncevalles gave rise to many romances, and was celebrated in the poetry of the Middle Ages.

13. While Charlemagne was fighting against the Mohammedans in Spain, the Saxons again took up arms against the Franks; but after his return from the war in Spain, Charlemagne again invaded and ravaged the territories of the Saxons, and again subjugated those fierce people after a series of desperate encounters. The victorious Frankish king compelled many of the conquered Saxons to join his armies in a war against the Slavonians in the East of Europe.

14. On the march against the Slavonians, the Saxons in Charlemagne's army fell suddenly upon the Frankish soldiers and massacred many of them. This treachery was terribly avenged by the Frankish monarch, who devastated the Saxon territory and caused 4,500 Saxons whom he had made prisoners to be put to death. The Saxons now renewed the war, but after sustaining a severe defeat on the Harz they were obliged to submit; and Saxony became a portion of the Frank Empire. Witikind, the Saxon chief, swore fealty to the Frankish monarch, received Christian baptism, and he and his people embraced Christianity. Bishoprics, monasteries and churches rapidly sprung up in the Saxon country.

15. In the year 788, A. D., not long after Charlemagne had established the Margraviate of Brandenburg as a check

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against the destructive inroads of the Hungarians, his nephew, Thassilo, Duke of Bavaria, endeavored to cast off the yoke of Frankish supremacy, with the aid of the wild Avars, who had established themselves in the East of Europe. The treacherous Bavarian duke was defeated, made prisoner, and punished for his faithlessness by perpetual imprisonment in the cloister at Fulda, in Hesse. Charlemagne then incorporated the Dukedom of Bavaria with the great Frank Empire, and established the Eastern Margraviate to check the incursions of the Avars.

16. When Charlemagne had become master of all France, Germany and Italy, and a large portion of Spain, he proceeded to Rome, where, on Christmas Day in the year 800, A. D., as the great Frankish monarch was attending divine service in the Church of St. Peter, Pope Leo III. placed the golden crown of the Roman Empire upon his head, and saluted him with title of "Emperor of the Romans," while the people in the church shouted, "Long life to Charles Augustus, crowned by the hand of God great and pacific Emperor of the Romans." The crowning of Charlemagne at Rome was regarded as a revival of the Roman Empire of the West; and Charlemagne was considered a successor of the Cæsars. The capital of Charlemagne's empire was Aix-la-Chapelle. There were now two great empires in Christendom;—that of the East with Constantinople for its capital, and that of the West with Aix-la-Chapelle for its seat of government. The division which had for a long time existed in the Christian Church now ended in a complete separation; and thus arose the Eastern, or Greek Catholic, and the Western, or Roman Catholic Churches.

17. Maddened by the oppressive system of military service, and by the payment of tithes to the Church, the Saxons rose in rebellion against the Frank power; but they

Charlemagne
Crowned at
Rome Em-
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Rebellion of the Saxons—Their final subjugation. were finally reduced to submission in the year 840, A. D.; and 10,000 Saxon families were forced to settle among the Franks, while colonies of Franks were settled in the Saxon country.

18. Charlemagne, who was extremely fond of learning, received instruction from the Saxon Alcuin, one of the greatest scholars of his time. He made the greatest exertions for the advancement of civilization among his subjects, and established order and improved the administration of justice throughout his vast dominions. He encouraged the arts, agriculture, commerce and literature; and founded schools and cathedrals for the diffusion of intellectual enlightenment and Christianity. His capital, Aix-la-Chapelle, was splendidly embellished with palaces, churches, and works of art.

Death of Charlemagne 19. This great monarch, who did so much to dispel the intellectual darkness which almost universally prevailed in Europe, died in the year 814, A. D., leaving his extensive empire to his son, Louis the Debonnaire (the Good-natured).

20. Charlemagne's successors were unable to keep together the great empire which he had built up. Louis the Debonnaire, who was a weak prince and unfit for government, was dethroned by his own sons, who had taken up arms against their father. The sons then quarrelled, and a fierce civil war followed. A sanguinary battle of three days was fought at Fontenaille, in Burgundy, in the year 841, A. D., where many thousands of the bravest of the Frank nobles and soldiers were slain.

21. Two years after the battle of Fontenaille, 843, A. D., the partition treaty of Verdun was concluded, by which the sons of Louis the Debonnaire divided the Frank Empire among themselves—Lothaire taking Italy, Burgundy and Lorraine; Louis the German obtaining Germany;

Partition treaty of Verdun—dismemberment of the Frank Empire.

and Charles the Bald receiving France. By the rapid deaths of most of the Carlovingian princes, the empire of Charlemagne was restored in the year 884, A. D., under the imbecile Charles the Fat; but three years afterwards, A. D., 887, it was finally dissolved.

CHAPTER LII.

THE DARK AGES—(Continued).

BARBARIAN RAVAGES IN EUROPE.

1. The dissolution of the Frank Empire was followed by a time of great confusion, during which Europe was greatly harassed on all sides by the ravages of ^{The Slavonians or slaves and the} barbarians. In the East of Europe were the ^{Avars.} Slavonians, or Slaves, who made the most destructive inroads into the Eastern portions of Germany. The Avars, another fierce tribe, also made very destructive incursions on the Eastern frontiers of Germany.

2. Germany was a prey to the ravages of a fiercer and more valiant people than either the Slavonians or the Avars,—namely, the Hungarians, or Magyars, ^{The Hungarians or Magyars.} a warlike and ferocious tribe of Tartars from Asia, who, after crossing the Ural, under their leader, Arpad, settled in the valleys of the Theiss and Danube rivers, which region has ever since been called Hungary. For several centuries Germany was harassed by these fierce barbarians, whose ferocity was only tamed when they embraced Christianity, towards the close of the tenth century.

3. While the barbarian Slavonians, Avars, and Magyars ravaged Central Europe, the Saracens ravaged the coasts of Italy after they had established themselves in Sicily. ^{The Saracens in Italy.} The armies of the Byzantine Empire for a time defended Southern Italy against the Arabs, whose ravages in Italy were only terminated after their defeat by Otho II., Emperor of Germany, in the tenth century.

4. A far more daring and formidable race of barbarians than the Slaves, the Avars, or the Hungarians, were the freebooting Northmen, or Normans, from the Scandinavian peninsula, who kept the coasts of Germany, France and England in constant alarm. In their light vessels, the Normans ravaged the coasts of the North Sea, sailed up the mouths of rivers, and, after securing a vast amount of booty, returned with it to their homes. For two centuries the Normans, under the name of Danes, ravaged England. A band of Normans, led by a chief named Rollo, settled in that portion of France named from them, Normandy. Ruric, a Norman Varangian chief, became the prince of the Russians, a Slavonic race to the south of the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. Iceland was discovered and peopled by Norwegians, who established in that remote island a flourishing republic. Greenland was discovered and peopled from Iceland. The Normans are said to have visited the North American continent.

CHAPTER LIII.

EUROPEAN INSTITUTIONS.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM. — CHIVALRY. — THE PAPACY AND THE HIERARCHY. —
MONACHISM.

1. WE will now proceed to give an account of the Feudal System, or form of government which prevailed throughout Europe during the Middle Ages. The barbarians who overthrew the Western Roman Empire divided the conquered lands among themselves. The chief of each of these tribes of barbarians was called a "king." Under him were other chiefs or leaders called "barons." Under each of these barons there were still other chiefs, and under each of these last was a large body of people. The military organization was kept up in the conquered countries. The bar

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barian conquerors devoted themselves entirely to war, leaving the tilling of the soil to the conquered inhabitants, who became slaves or serfs. The serfs could not be taken from the lands on which they lived, but were bought and sold with them.

2. The kings and barons owned large stone castles, to which they retired when attacked by an enemy. All the personal property of the conquered people was ^{Castles of the kings and barons—feuds or fiefs.} divided by lot among the conquerors; but the lands were regarded as the property of the king, not to retain, however, but to grant to his followers. The king kept a portion of the lands for his own use. These were called "crown lands;" and the king's power depended upon the extent of his private estates. The remainder of the lands was bestowed on his subordinate chiefs, the barons, to be held by them for life. At the death of a chief or baron, his portion of land, called a "feud," or "fief," was again taken by the king, who then bestowed it on some other baron. From the term "feud," the word "feudal" is derived; and by the Feudal System is meant the system based on the feuds or fiefs.

3. Those to whom the king granted fiefs were called "vassals of the crown," or "liegemen." The giver of the lands was called a "liege-lord," or "lord-paramount." ^{Vassals and lord-paramount—Sub-fiefs.} The king bestowed the lands on his vassals, on condition that they should join him with a certain number of soldiers whenever he should call them to arms. To this they bound themselves by a solemn oath, which was called "swearing fealty." The king, who was lord-paramount, or liege-lord, in return, swore to protect his vassal, and not to continue in arms more than forty days at a time, nor war against the Church. On the same condition, the vassals of the crown distributed their lands among their followers or vassals. Thus each vassal bestowed fiefs and sub-fiefs on his vassals, each of whom did homage for his lands to his

liege-lord. So there were many grades of fiefs and sub-fiefs.

4. These fiefs, which were at first granted only for life, at length became hereditary in the families of the great vassals of the crown, each of whose estates at his death passed into the possession of his eldest son. In the same manner, great offices and their titles, such as duke, marquis, count, or baron, finally became hereditary also. Out of this state of things originated the exclusive privileges yet enjoyed by the nobility of Europe.

5. The great oppressions and abuses to which the Feudal System gave rise, led to the establishment of a remarkable institution throughout Europe about the beginning of the eleventh century.

Origin of Chivalry.

This peculiar institution, called Chivalry, originated in the piety of some nobles who wished to give to the profession of arms a religious tendency. These nobles devoted their swords to God, and bound themselves by a solemn oath to use them only in the cause of the weak and the oppressed. Those who took upon themselves these vows were called "Knights." Very soon every noble aspired to the honor of being a knight; and the result was that much attention was given to the education of the young, for more than physical power was needed before any one could be admitted to the honors of knighthood.

6. The aspirant to knighthood was required to be brave, courteous, generous, truthful, obedient, and respectful to his superiors in age or rank, and also to the ladies. The result of the development of these virtuous and noble qualities was that the candidate for knighthood became kind and affable to all who were below him in rank or fortune. The young noble who aspired to knighthood was placed at a very early age under the care of some noble distinguished

Virtues requisite for knighthood — Education of a knight.

for his chivalrous qualities, who, in his castle, instructed the young aspirant to knighthood in all the duties of Chivalry.

7. The ceremonies of admission to the order of knighthood were somewhat singular. The candidate was first placed in a bath, to denote that in presenting himself for knighthood, he must present himself washed from his sins. When he left the bath he was clothed; first in a white tunic, to signify the purity of the life he was vowing to lead; then in a crimson vest, to denote that he was called upon to shed blood; and lastly in a complete suit of black armor, which was an emblem of death, for which he must always be prepared. He took an oath to speak the truth, to maintain the right, to protect the distressed, to practice courtesy, to defend the Christian religion, to despise the allurements of ease, and to vindicate the honor of his name.

8. The knight was dressed in a suit of armor which protected his whole person. This armor was sometimes made of mail, that is, links of iron forming a kind of net-work dress, which a sword or a lance could not easily penetrate. Often this armor consisted of plates of iron, which protected the whole body of the knight. The aggressive weapons of a knight were a lance twelve or fifteen feet in length, a large sword, a dagger, and sometimes a battle-axe, or a steel club called "mace-at-arms." The knight's war-horse, like himself, was protected by a covering of mail or iron plate.

9. Those knights who travelled about from place to place, independent of each other, were called "Knights-errant." Sometimes a great entertainment, called a "tournament," was given by some king or rich prince, at which a mock combat was held for the knights to display their skill in the use of arms. A vast number of ladies and gentlemen assem-

bled to witness these friendly trials of skill. At the conclusion of the exercises, the judges, who were usually old knights, declared the victors; and the prizes were presented to the successful knights by the noblest or most beautiful lady present.

10. The good effects of the institution of Chivalry were many. While it protected the defenseless and the **Good effects of chivalry on European civilization.** down-trodden in that warlike and barbarous period, the Middle Ages, it contributed much to the final overthrow of feudalism and the revival of European civilization, which had disappeared with the fall of the Western Roman Empire. Commerce increased, talent and invention received encouragement, the arts and the sciences began to flourish, and many new towns were built and peopled.

11. The Pope, or Head of the Church, assumed command or authority over all the princes and kingdoms of Christendom. He regarded the empire of Germany and all other Christian kingdoms as **The papal power—Hildebrand.** papal fiefs. From the eleventh to the sixteenth century the papal power was at its height. During that period the power of the Pope was so great that the most powerful monarchs of Europe could be subjected to the greatest humiliations by His Holiness. The most powerful and most illustrious, and the ablest of the Popes, and the one who raised the papacy above every other power in Christendom, was Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), who compelled Henry IV., Emperor of Germany, to come to Italy and stand three days and three nights barefoot in the snow, without tasting a mouthful of food.

12. The two punishments by the influence of which the Pope endeavored to maintain his authority were the **Interdict and Excommunication.** interdict and the excommunication. The papal punishment by the interdict was forbidding or interdicting divine service to be publicly performed. When a nation was under an interdict, the

churches were all closed, the bells were not rung, the dead were thrown into ditches and holes without any funeral ceremonies, diversions of all sorts were forbidden, and everything presented an appearance of gloom and mourning. An interdict was levelled at a village, a city, a state, or a nation ; but an excommunication was directed against individuals. A person excommunicated by the Pope was regarded as unholy and polluted ; and every person was forbidden to come near him or render him any friendly assistance. If the sentence of excommunication could be enforced, as in most cases it could, the proudest and most powerful monarch could become, by a single decree of the Holy See, a miserable outcast.

13. Monachism, or Monasticism, had its birth-place in the East, where a life of solitude and devotion to the contemplation of divine subjects was by degrees adopted by so many, that about the close of the third century of the Christian era, the Egyptian Antonius, who had divested himself of all his vast possessions and selected the desert for his residence, collected the hitherto scattered monks, or monachi, as they were called, into enclosed places styled monasteries, cloisters, or convents. In these monasteries the monks lived together in fellowship ; and Pachomius, the disciple of Antonius, gave the fraternity a rule.

14. Monasticism soon extended into Western Europe. In the sixth century, Benedict of Nursia established a monastery on Mount Casino, in Southern Italy, and thus became the founder of the famous order of Benedictine monks, which rapidly spread into all European countries and built many cloisters. Numerous orders of monks arose in the course of time, among which were the Augustinians, so called from their founder, St. Augustine. Other noted monastic orders were the Cistercians, the Premonstrants, and the Carthusians.

Origin
monachism
or monasticism.

The Benedictine Monks—
Other monastic orders.

15. Two celebrated monkish orders arose in the thirteenth century,—the Franciscans and the Dominicans. **The Francis-** The order of Franciscans was founded by the **can and Dominican** pious Francis of Assisi, a wealthy merchant's **Monks.** son, who, in 1226, renounced all his possessions, clothed himself in rags, and went from place to place, begging and preaching the Gospel. His wonderful zeal for the salvation of souls made for him many disciples, who, following his example, renounced their worldly possessions, fasted, prayed, and supported themselves by alms and donations. The order of Franciscans became wide-spread throughout Europe. About the same time arose the order of Dominicans, founded by the learned Spaniard, Dominic. The chief aim of the Dominican monks was the extinction of all heretical doctrines and the preservation of the predominant faith in its original purity. The Dominicans took a vow of absolute poverty, and sought to gain heaven by austerity of manner and by a strict religious devotion. The Court of the Inquisition, with all its horrible examinations, dungeons, and tortures, was assigned to the Dominicans for the extermination of heretics, as all who differed from the established Church were called. The Franciscan monks, who mingled with the people, were chiefly engaged in the salvation of souls; while the Dominicans, who gave their attention to the sciences, filled, by degrees, the chairs of the universities.

16. All monks were obliged to take the three vows of celibacy, personal poverty, and obedience. Females who took upon themselves the obligations of Monachism were called "nuns," and their cloisters or convents were styled "nunneries." **Monastic** The **vows—Rela-** **tions of** **Monachism** **to the** **papacy.** monastic orders were the strongest support of the power of the Pope, who endowed them with the greatest privileges and removed them from the authority of the bishops.

17. Monachism proved a blessing to humanity during

the dark and barbarous period of the Middle Ages. It preserved the remains of ancient civilization, afforded an asylum or place of refuge for the down-trodden and the oppressed, and diffused morality and intellectual enlightenment, and softened the rude manners of those benighted times by the preaching of the Gospel, and by the establishment of schools for education.

*Beneficial
influence of
Monachism
on civilization.*

CHAPTER LIV.

THE CRUSADES.

THE FIRST CRUSADE (A. D., 1096-1099).

1. FROM the time of the triumph of Christianity over the paganism of the Roman world in the fourth century, it had been a custom among the people of Christian Europe to make pilgrimages to Jerusalem for the purpose of expiating a sinful life, praying at the Holy Sepulchre, and exhibiting gratitude for heavenly mercies. As long as Syria and Palestine formed a part of the Byzantine, Greek, or Eastern Roman Empire, access to the Holy City was secured to these pilgrims. While the Holy Land remained under the enlightened dominion of the Saracens or Arabians, the Christian pilgrim was also unmolested in his journey to and from the Holy Sepulchre. But when the Seljuk Turks, a race of fierce barbarians from the plains of Tartary, took Jerusalem in 1076, and obtained full possession of the Holy Land in 1094, the native Christians and the pilgrims from Europe were ill-treated, and many of them became martyrs to their religion. Those who returned to Europe from their pilgrimages gave a melancholy account of the cruelties and oppressions suffered by the Christians in Palestine at the hands of the infidel Turks, and thus excited the greatest indignation in Christian Europe.

*Christian
pilgrimages
to Jerusalem.*

2. Among others who had been witnesses of the cruel-

ties and oppressions suffered by the Christians in Palestine was the zealous and fanatical monk, Peter the Hermit, of Amiens, in the French province of Picardy. On his return to Europe from a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, Peter the Hermit resolved to arouse the Christian nations of Europe to a gigantic effort to wrest the Holy Land from the hands of the infidels. Peter went from town to town, and from castle to castle, preaching of the duty of Christian Europe to expel the barbarian Turks from the Holy City. Wherever he went, numerous crowds assembled to hear him; and very soon all France and Italy were aroused to the wildest enthusiasm for an expedition against the infidel desecrators of the shrine of the Saviour.

3. Pope Urban II., who zealously abetted the design for an expedition for the redemption of the Holy Land, assembled a Council of the Church at Clermont, in Southern France. This Council was attended by numerous bishops and an immense concourse of people. When the Pope, addressing the clergy and the multitude, said, "It is the duty of every one to deny himself and take up the cross, that he may win Christ," there arose a simultaneous shout, "It is the will of God!" and great numbers demanded to be enlisted in the sacred army. As the symbol of enlistment in the cause of God was a red cross to be worn on the right shoulder, the expedition was called a "Crusade," and those who engaged in it were called "Crusaders." All who engaged in the enterprise received from the Church the promise of a remission of sins and an eternal heavenly reward after death.

4. The enthusiasm for the Crusade was so great throughout Christian Europe that many became impatient at what they considered the slowness of the preparations of princes; and accordingly, in 1096, numerous bands, consisting of thousands

**The First
Band of
Crusaders.**

of the lowest classes of society, set out for the Holy Land without order or discipline. They were led by Peter the Hermit and a French knight called "Walter the Penniless." They proceeded through Germany and Hungary towards Constantinople, but very few of them ever reached Asia. Having attempted to obtain the necessaries of life by forcible means in the countries through which they passed, and having carried robbery and desolation through Bulgaria and stormed Belgrade, the inhabitants of those countries rose against them and destroyed nearly the entire band of Crusaders; and Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless had very few followers when they reached Constantinople, where they waited to join the great army of the First Crusade under Godfrey of Bouillon.

5. Other disorderly and undisciplined bands, which violently persecuted and even murdered Jews and others who rejected Christ, followed those of Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless; but they were totally destroyed before they reached Constantinople by the people whom they had robbed and plundered.

Fate of other disorderly bands.

6. Nearly 300,000 of the Crusaders had already perished when the valiant Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine, led a powerful and disciplined army towards the Holy Land. The principal leaders of the Crusaders next to Godfrey of Bouillon were Count Hugh of Vermandois, brother of King Philip I. of France; Duke Robert of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror of England; Count Stephen of Blois, father of King Stephen of England; the chivalrous Count Raymond of Toulouse; Earl Robert of Flanders; and Bohemond, brother of Robert Guiscard, the Norman prince of Southern Italy. This great army of Crusaders set off for Palestine in six divisions, which took different routes to Constantinople, where all were united before

The great army under Godfrey of Bouillon.

passing over into Asia. When the Crusaders arrived in Asia their army consisted of 400,000 men, of whom 100,000 were cavalry.

7. The Crusaders captured Nice, in Asia Minor, in 1097, after a siege of two months, and defeated the Turks in the battle of Dorylæum. Proceeding in their victorious career, the Christians next laid siege to Antioch. That city was finally taken by the strategy of Prince Bohemond and the treachery of one of the Turks, who left a gate open to the besieging Crusaders. The greatest cruelties were perpetrated upon the unfortunate inhabitants of Antioch, by the victorious Christians, after the capture of the city.

Siege and capture of Antioch by the Crusaders.

8. A few days after the Crusaders had taken Antioch, an army of 300,000 Turks and Persians appeared before that city. The finding of a "holy lance" in the Church of St. Peter raised the courage of the Christians, who sallied out of the city, and, after a desperate battle, totally defeated the infidels and forced them to a precipitate flight.

Great Christian victory at Antioch.

9. Onward the Crusaders proceeded. When they came in sight of Jerusalem they shouted and wept for joy, and fell down on their knees and offered thanks to God; but their joy was succeeded by rage at beholding the Holy City in the possession of the Mohammedans. The Crusaders therefore

Siege and capture of Jerusalem by the Crusaders.

laid siege to the city, which they finally took by storm, in July, 1099, after a siege of nearly six months. The streets of the captured city were soon filled with the bodies of 70,000 slaughtered Mohammedans. The conquering Christians believed that they were doing God good service by slaughtering all who rejected the Saviour; and both Jews and Mohammedans were massacred. After this most shocking atrocity, the Crusaders proceeded with hymns of praise to the Hill of Calvary, and kissed the stone which had covered the body of the Saviour; and

then offered thanks to the God of Peace for the signal success of their undertaking.

10. After the capture of the Holy City, the Crusaders established the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem, which lasted nearly a century. Their gallant leader, Godfrey of Bouillon, was made ruler of the new state. He was too pious to assume the title of "King;" but called himself "Defender of the Holy Sepulchre," and wore a crown of thorns instead of one of gold. Godfrey gained a great victory over the Sultan of Egypt, at Ascalon, in August, 1099. He died in the following year A. D., 1100, and was succeeded at the head of the new state by his heroic brother Baldwin.

Founding of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem.

11. Some time after the First Crusade, two celebrated orders of knighthood arose at Jerusalem. These were the Knights of St. John, or Hospitallers, and the Knights Templars, or Red Cross Knights. Both these orders became famous for their military exploits against the infidels.

Founding of the Knights of St. John and the Knights Templars.

CHAPTER LV.

THE CRUSADES—(Continued).

THE SECOND CRUSADE (1147, 1148). — THE THIRD CRUSADE (A. D., 1189-1192).

1. THE Christian kingdom of Jerusalem suffered many attacks from the infidels, and some of the principal Christian fortresses in Palestine were lost. Under these circumstances, Christian Europe undertook a Second Crusade. The pious and eloquent St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, in Burgundy, preached the cross in France and Germany (A. D., 1147).

Loss of Christian fortresses in Palestine.

2. Powerful expeditions were led toward the Holy Land by Conrad III., Emperor of Germany, and Louis VII., King of France. The army under Conrad marched by way of Constantinople into Asia Minor, where it was decoyed by the treacherous Greek generals into a water-

Expeditions under Conrad III., of Germany, and Louis VII., of France.

less desert, where the Turkish cavalry suddenly attacked and thoroughly annihilated the army of German Crusaders, only a tenth part of whom succeeded in escaping to Constantinople. The French army, led by King Louis VII., marched along the coast, but the greater portion perished, from famine and fatigue, and by the swords of the infidels, before reaching Jerusalem. The shattered remnants of the immense hosts of French and Germans, led by the two sovereigns, after reaching the Holy Land, engaged in an unsuccessful siege of Damascus, which was the termination of the Second Crusade.

3. The situation of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem became more and more perilous after the Second Crusade; and at length the valiant Saladin, Sultan of Egypt, reduced a part of Palestine under his sceptre. The magnanimous Saladin finally granted the Christians of Palestine a truce; but when a Christian knight interrupted the passage of Saladin's mother, seized her treasures, and slew her attendants, the exasperated Sultan of Egypt recommenced hostilities, defeated the Christians in the battle of Tiberias, took Joppa, Sidon, Acre, and other towns, and in 1187 Jerusalem also fell into the possession of the conquering infidel. Saladin, who surpassed his Christian foes in virtue, generosity, and nobleness of heart, treated the inhabitants of the Holy City with mildness, but caused the crosses to be torn down and the furniture of the Christian churches to be destroyed.

4. Upon the arrival of intelligence of the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin, great alarm prevailed throughout the whole West of Europe; and from the shores of the Mediterranean to the coasts of the Baltic, armed bands set off for the Holy Land. The three most powerful sovereigns of Europe, Frederic Barbarossa of Germany, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard the Lion-hearted.

**Expeditions
of Frederic
Barbarossa.
Philip Aug-
ustus, and
Richard the
Lion-hearted.**

of England, led powerful armies against the infidels. (A. D., 1189).

5. The Emperor Frederic Barbarossa, with the German army, marched by land to Asia Minor, and defeated the Sultan of Iconium in a great battle near the walls of his chief city; but the noble-hearted German Emperor lost his life in a stream which he had attempted to cross. His second son, Frederic, with a part of the expedition, proceeded to Palestine, and took part in the siege of Acre. Frederic Barbarossa's victory at Iconium.

6. Kings Richard the Lion-hearted and Philip Augustus, with the English and French armies, after reaching the Holy land by sea, laid siege to Acre, which fell into their hands in 1192, after a siege of nearly two years, during which nine great battles were fought before the city. Richard the Lion-hearted was noted for his energy, ability and valor, as well as for his pride, severity, and cruelty. Siege and capture of Acre.

7. By the orders of Richard the Lion-hearted, the German banner, which Duke Leopold of Austria had caused to be erected on the battlements of Acre, was torn down and trampled under foot by the English. When the infidels failed to fulfil the stipulations for the payment of a ransom for the captive Saracens, 3,500 of them fell victims to the fiery temper of the English king. Richard's courage made him feared and respected by the infidels; but notwithstanding his military skill and bravery, his efforts for the recapture of Jerusalem were unavailing. Arrogance and cruelty of Richard the Lion-hearted.

8. The King of France was jealous of the superior military ability of the King of England. The two monarchs soon quarrelled, and Philip Augustus returned to France. After gaining a great victory over Sultan Saladin near Ascalon, Richard the Lion-hearted set out on his return, by sea, to his kingdom. (A. D., 1192.) His vessel, having been Quarrel of the Kings of England and France.

driven by a storm to the coast of Italy, Richard proceeded on his way to England, by land, through Germany; but he was seized and imprisoned in the castle of Trifels, by order of the Emperor Henry VI. of Germany, in revenge for the insult to the German flag after the capture of Acre, and only obtained his release upon the payment of a heavy ransom by the English people.

CHAPTER LVI.

THE CRUSADES—(Continued).

THE FOURTH CRUSADES (A. D., 1202, 1203).—THE FIFTH CRUSADE (A. D., 1228, 1229).—THE SIXTH CRUSADE (A. D., 1250, 1251).—THE SEVENTH CRUSADE (A. D., 1270, 1271).

1. In the year 1202, A. D., the Fourth Crusade was undertaken by French and Italian knights, under Count Baldwin of Flanders, at the instigation of Pope Innocent III. After assembling at Venice for the purpose of being conveyed to Palestine, the Crusaders captured Zara, in Dalmatia, for the Venetians; but instead of sailing to the Holy Land, they proceeded against Constantinople for the purpose of restoring to the throne of the Byzantine Empire, Isaac Angelus, who had been dethroned and imprisoned by his own brother.

2. Headed by the blind old Dandolo, Doge of Venice, the Crusaders appeared before Constantinople, took the city, and restored Isaac Angelus to the Greek throne; but when the French Crusaders demanded the rewards which had been promised to them, the inhabitants of Constantinople raised an insurrection in which the Emperor Isaac Angelus and his son Alexius perished. Thereupon the French Crusaders stormed and took the Byzantine capital, plundered the

Expedition of French and Italian knights.
Storming of Constantinople by the Crusaders.

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churches, palaces, and dwellings, destroyed many valuable monuments of art, and filled the whole city with terror and desolation.

3. After plundering Constantinople, the French Crusaders subverted the Byzantine or Greek Empire, and established in its stead a new Roman or Latin ^{Temporary subversion of the Greek Empire—A new Roman or Latin Empire.} Empire, with Constantinople for its capital, and Count Baldwin of Flanders for its sovereign. This Latin kingdom lasted fifty-six years, after which it was overthrown, and the old Byzantine dynasty was restored to the throne of Constantinople in the person of Michael Palæologus.

4. The Fourth Crusade was without results, concerning Jerusalem; and at times after its conclusion separate ^{Separate bands of Crusaders.} hands of Crusaders, without chiefs or without discipline, made journeys to the Holy Land, and ventured upon the hazardous undertakings of restoring the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem and defending the Latin kingdom of Constantinople. On one occasion, 20,000 children left their homes in Europe on a journey to the Holy Sepulchre, but they perished from hunger and fatigue, or were sold into slavery. In 1218, King Andrew II. of Hungary began the Fifth Crusade; but his expedition to Egypt had a disastrous result.

5. In 1228, the excommunicated Frederic II., Emperor of Germany, led an expedition into Palestine, at a time when the Sultan of Egypt was at war with the governor of Damascus respecting the possession of Syria and Palestine. The Pope forbade all Christian warriors from joining the expedition ^{Expedition of Frederic II. of Germany to Palestine.} until the Emperor Frederic II. should be relieved from the curse of the Church. In 1229, Frederic II. concluded a treaty with Sultan Melek Kamel of Egypt, by which Jerusalem and the greater part of the Holy Land were surrendered to the Christians; but the Pope excommunicated the Holy City, and Frederic II. was crowned at

Jerusalem without being consecrated by the Church. The abandoned Emperor soon returned to Germany.

6. In the year 1243, A. D., fourteen years after the Fifth Crusade, the Corasmins, a fierce tribe of barbarians **Ravages of the Corasmins in Palestine.** from the plains of Tartary, overran Palestine, carrying slaughter and desolation wherever they appeared, took Jerusalem, massacred its inhabitants, destroyed the Holy Sepulchre, and wasted the flower of the Christian chivalry in a desperate battle at Gaza; but they were finally defeated by the Christian and Turkish armies, which, for the moment, united against the common enemy.

7. The horrible deeds of the Corasmins in Palestine led to the Sixth Crusade, which was conducted by the French king, Louis IX., or St. Louis, who, in **Expedition of St. Louis to Egypt.** 1250, accompanied by many of his nobles, sailed at the head of a powerful expedition to Egypt. After taking the town of Damietta, the French fleet was destroyed in the Nile by means of Greek fire; and St. Louis was taken prisoner by the Sultan of Egypt, and only obtained his freedom by the payment of a heavy ransom, A. D., 1250. At length the Mamelukes, a race of Circassians who had been held as slaves in Egypt, obtained control of the government of that country.

8. In 1270, St. Louis undertook the Seventh Crusade—the last of those great expeditions of the Christians **Expedition of St. Louis to Tunis.** against the infidels. The French fleet, having been driven by a storm upon the coast of Sardinia, St. Louis resolved to attack the piratical Moors of Northern Africa. The valiant French monarch landed near Tunis, and besieged that city; but soon a pestilential disease carried St. Louis and the greater number of his followers to their graves. The surviving French leaders concluded a treaty of peace with the Moors, and returned to France.

9. Prince Edward of England (afterward King Edward

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I.), who participated in the Seventh Crusade, went to the Holy Land, where he performed many gallant exploits, and struck such terror into the hearts of the Saracens that they hired an assassin to murder him. Prince Edward wrenched a poisoned dagger from the hand of the assassin; but in the scuffle, the prince received a wound in the arm which might have proved fatal had not his affectionate wife, Eleanor, who had accompanied him to Palestine, sucked the poison from the wound.

Exploits of Prince Edward of England in the Holy Land.

10. The infidels gradually recovered their lost power in Palestine; and, in 1291, a Turkish army of 200,000 men appeared before Acre, and, after a vigorous siege, took the city by storm. The remaining Christians voluntarily retired from Syria, which for two centuries had been drenched with the blood of millions of Christian and Mohammedan warriors.

Siege and capture of Acre by the Turks.

CHAPTER LVII.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE CRUSADES.

1. THE Crusades ennobled the knightly class by furnishing a higher aim to their efforts, and gave rise to the establishment of new orders, which presented a model of Chivalry and were presumed to possess all the knightly virtues. Of these new orders were the Knights of St. John, the Knights Templars, and the Teutonic Knights, which combined the spirit of the knight and monk, their vows being chastity, poverty, obedience, and war against the infidels.

Influence of the Crusades on chivalry.

2. After the re-conquest of the Holy Land by the Turks, the Knights of St. John established themselves in the Island of Rhodes, which was finally wrested from them by the Ottoman Turks, in 1522, when they received the island of Malta

The Knights of St. John.

from the celebrated Charles V., Emperor of Germany and King of Spain.

3. The Knights-Templars acquired great wealth by donations and legacies. After the loss of their possessions in Palestine, the greater number of them returned to France, where they abandoned themselves to infidelity and corruption, the consequence of which was the final dissolution of their order.

The Knights-Templars.

4. The Teutonic Knights were celebrated for their services in the civilization of the countries on the shores of the Baltic sea. They defended Christianity, against the heathen Prussians in the region of the Vistula, and converted the inhabitants of the territory between the Vistula and the Niemen to Christianity, and established there the German language, customs, and civilization. The cities of Culm, Thorn, Elbing, Königsburg, and others arose; bishoprics and monasteries sprung up; and German industry and civilization produced a complete change.

The Teutonic Knights.

5. The Crusades gave rise to a free peasantry and tended to break up the Feudal System, as by their means great numbers of serfs received their freedom, and extended the power and influence of the burgher class and of the towns. The rich barons were compelled to sell their possessions, for the purpose of raising money to equip troops and to transport them to the Holy Land.

Influence of the Crusades on the Feudal System.

6. The Crusades promoted the diffusion of knowledge and the advancement of science and literature. Those who engaged in them were at first deplorably ignorant and illiterate; but when they came in contact with the Greek and Arabian civilization, they acquired a fondness for science and literature, and after returning to Europe they imparted the same spirit to their countrymen.

Diffusion of knowledge.

7. The Crusades gave great encouragement to com-

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merce, as by their means different countries were brought into communication and more intimate commercial relations with each other; and the advantage of a mutual exchange of products was soon perceived. In consequence, great progress was made in the arts of navigation and ship-building; and many flourishing cities, such as Venice, Pisa, and Genoa, acquired immense wealth and attained to vast commercial importance.

*Development
of Com-
merce.*

8. The Crusades gave greater power and influence to the clergy, and multiplied the riches of the Church. They also tended to exalt the religious enthusiasm produced by them into a spirit of fanatical intolerance. This intolerance was soon manifested in a crusade against the Albigenses, a new religious sect which arose in the South of France. Pope Innocent III. ordered the cross to be preached against the Albigenses and their protector, Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse; whereupon bands of fanatical warriors overran the fertile region inhabited by the new sect, and spread death and desolation wherever they appeared, destroying cities, towns, and villages, massacring the inhabitants, and converting that beautiful region into a vast wilderness. Finally, in 1228, King Louis VIII. of France undertook a bloody campaign against the heretics; and after a desolating war, Count Raymond was defeated and subdued, and the unfortunate creed of the Albigenses was extinguished in blood.

*Influence of
the Crusa-
des on the
Church.*

9. About the time of the First Crusade, the Mohammedan prophet, Hassan, founded the fanatical sect of the "Assassins," who dwelt in the mountains of Syria, and who became the terror alike of Christians, Jews, and Turks. These Assassins were blindly devoted to their chief, "The Old Man of the Mountain," and paid the most implicit obedience to his commands; and they believed that if they

*The Assassins and the
Old Man of
the Moun-
tain.*

sacrificed their lives for his sake, they would certainly be rewarded with the highest joys of paradise. Whenever the Old Man of the Mountain considered himself injured by any one, he dispatched some of his Assassins secretly to murder the aggressor. Thus was derived the common name of "assassin," which has ever since been applied to a secret murderer.

CHAPTER LVIII.

LATIN STATES.

ITALIAN STATES.—THE PAPAL STATE OF ROME.—THE DUCHY OF MILAN.—
REPUBLIC OF VENICE.—REPUBLIC OF GENOA.—REPUBLIC OF FLORENCE.—
THE KINGDOM OF NAPLES AND SICILY.

1. FROM the time that Pepin the Little, King of the Franks, endowed the Pope with a large tract of territory in Middle Italy, the city of Rome, with its neighboring territory, had been under the dominion of the Popes, who, in uninterrupted succession, have filled the chair of St. Peter.

2. During the seventy years that the Pope resided at Avignon, in France, Rome was a prey to internal dissensions, and suffered greatly from the lawlessness of the nobles. Out of these intestine disorders and quarrels of the families of Orsini and Colonna arose Cola di Rienzi, called the "Last of the Tribunes," who was imbued with the spirit of the ancient Roman Republicans, and who endeavored to restore Rome to its former glory and pre-eminence. Having gained the support of the Roman people by his fiery addresses, Rienzi was made a Tribune of the People; and he seized the supreme power in Rome in 1347, and expelled the lawless nobles; but his impolicy in loading the Roman people with the most oppressive taxes, soon made him unpopular, and, after a brief existence of seven months, his government was overthrown, and he was driven into exile. Rienzi afterwards returned to Rome, and was assassinated during a tumult in the city, in 1354.

**Founds at
Rome—Rise
of Cola di
Rienzi.**

3. After the fall of the Carolingian dynasty in Northern Italy, that country was a prey to confusion and anarchy, until it passed under the sway of the ^{Northern} Emperor of Germany, in the tenth century. ^{Italy under the Emperor of Germany.} In the course of time, Milan and other towns emerged into importance.

4. In 1177, Milan and other towns of Lombardy formed the Lombard League against the German Emperor, and by the peace of Constance, in 1183, the Lombard cities secured their independence; but ^{The Lombard League.} Italy was distracted for centuries by the civil wars between the Guelphs, or supporters of the Pope, and the Ghibellines, or adherents of the Emperor of Germany.

5. Milan, which was ruled by the family of Visconti, in the process of time acquired nearly the whole of Lombardy. The ruler of Milan and its territory ^{Milan under the Families of Visconti} received the title of Duke from the Emperor of Germany. On the death of the last Milan-^{and Sforza.}ese duke of the family of Visconti, in 1450, the government of the duchy was bestowed on Francisco Sforza.

6. In 1500, the Duchy of Milan was subdued by Louis XII., King of France, and the Milanese duke, Louis Moro, was kept a prisoner for ten years; but ^{Milan under the French and the Spaniards.} the French were finally driven away and Moro was restored to his dukedom. In 1515, the French again took possession of Milan, after their king, Francis I., had defeated the Milanese and their allies, the Swiss, in the battle of Marignano, or "the Battle of the Giants." In 1525, Milan was conquered by the Spaniards, who retained the duchy for almost two centuries.

7. During the Middle Ages, a number of small Republics arose in Italy, the most prominent of which were Venice, Genoa, Pisa, and Florence, which were ^{Italian Republics—Origin of Venice.} greatly renowned for their extensive commerce and maritime power. The most famous of these

Italian republic was Venice, which was founded in the year 452, A. D., by the Veneti, a people of Northern Italy, who fled in terror from their homes during the frightful ravages in Italy by Attila and his Hunnic followers. The fugitive Veneti took refuge among the small islands at the head of the Adriatic sea, and there founded a settlement called Venezia, or Venice.

8. For more than two centuries, Venice was a simple republic; but in the year 697, A. D., its form of government was changed by the election of a Doge, or Duke, who was vested with almost absolute power. In the beginning of the ninth century, the central island, Rialto, was connected with the other islands by bridges, and this city of bridges and canals, instead of streets, became a great commercial power.

9. In the twelfth century, the Venetians adopted St. Mark as their patron saint, having brought, as it is said, his body from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. (A. D., 829.) During the seventh, eighth, and ninth centuries, Venice greatly increased in wealth, commerce, and naval power; and its territories were enlarged by the annexation of Dalmatian provinces. In the First Crusade, the Venetians aided Godfrey of Bouillon with a fleet of 200 vessels; and during the whole period of those Holy Wars, Venice was the commercial centre and the emporium of the trade between the nations of Europe and those of the East.

10. In the twelfth century, the ceremony of "wedding the Adriatic," was instituted, the Pope presenting the Doge of Venice with a ring for the purpose. The ceremony was performed with great pomp, and consisted in casting a ring into the Adriatic, to indicate that the sea was subject to Venice as a bride is to her husband.

11. Venice acquired possession of many rich towns in Lombardy, and also of Crete, Cyprus, the Peloponnesus,

**The first
Doge, or
Duke of
Venice.**

**St. Mark—
Venetian aid
to the Cru-
saders.**

**Ceremony of
"Wedding
the Adriatic."**

and the islands of the Archipelago (the ancient *Acquisitions of Venice.*
 Egean Sea), Venice, like all the other Italian republics, was torn by the contests of domestic factions. In the fourteenth century, the democratic system in Venice was overthrown, and a government of the aristocracy was erected in its stead. A "Council of Ten" was appointed to prevent any attempt at the reestablishment of democracy.

12. At the commencement of the fifteenth century, Venice attained the highest pitch of greatness and prosperity, and was for more than a century the chief commercial and maritime power of the world. Venice did very important service to all Christian Europe by checking the naval power of the Ottoman Turks in the Mediterranean Sea; but her long maritime wars finally exhausted her resources, and her government grew despotic and corrupt. *Height of Venetian glory.*

13. The discovery of a sea-passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope sealed the fate of Venice, and her commercial and maritime glory, in a great measure departed from her; but for several centuries longer Venice continued formidable, and her fleets contended successfully against the Ottoman Turks, who endeavored to secure the control of the Mediterranean sea. *Decline of Venetian commerce and maritime power.*

14. When, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, Venice attempted to extend her territorial possessions in Italy, the powerful "League of Cambray" was formed against her by Pope Julius II., King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, King Louis XII. of France, and the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany. (A. D., 1508.) The Venetians soon succeeded in winning the Pope and the King of Spain to their interest, and so contrived to dissolve the league; and the French, who had threatened the independence of Venice, were soon expelled from Italy. *League of Cambray against Venice.*

15. The Republic of Genoa, the great commercial rival of Venice, was often engaged in naval wars with that powerful maritime republic. In these wars, **Genoa's naval wars with Venice.** Venice was generally successful. Genoa was greatly weakened by dissensions between the democracy and the aristocracy, or Guelphs and Ghibelines.

16. In the latter part of the fifteenth century, Genoa came into the possession of the French, and afterwards of the Duchy of Milan. In 1528, Andrea Doria, **Acquisition of Genoa by the French.** the great Genoese admiral, liberated Genoa from the sway of the French, and reestablished the republican government, thus winning for himself the title of "Father of his country and Restorer of its Liberties."

17. The commercial city of Pisa was the first town of any importance in Tuscany; but in a war with Genoa its power was greatly weakened, and finally Pisa **Conquest of Pisa by Florence.** was conquered by the Republic of Florence and became a dependency of that powerful state. Florence, which was also distinguished for her commerce and manufactures, was likewise greatly weakened by the quarrel between the Guelphs and the Ghibelines; and the state was alternately governed by the aristocracy and the democracy.

18. In 1428, Cosmo de Medici assumed the government of Florence and ruled with almost dictatorial power; but **Wise rule of Cosmo de Medici and Lorenzo the Magnificent.** he used his power wisely, thus earning the glorious title of "Father of his Country." Under the rule of Cosmo de Medici, and that of his distinguished grandson, Lorenzo "the Magnificent," Florence enjoyed the greatest prosperity; and the arts, sciences, and literature flourished in the state. After the death of Lorenzo the Magnificent, the democratic government was reestablished in Florence: but in 1530 the republican constitution was again overthrown, and the

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House of Medici was restored to the government of Florence, through the interference of Pope Clement VII. and the Emperor Charles V. of Germany.

19. In the ninth century, Southern Italy was invaded by the Saracens, against whom that country was defended by the armies of the Byzantine and German Empires; but the Saracens retained possession of many places in Southern Italy, until they were expelled by the Normans, in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Hordes of Normans from Normandy poured into Southern Italy and took possession of the country.

20. In 1060, Robert Guiscard, a Norman chieftain, led a band of his countrymen into Southern Italy; and was acknowledged by the Pope, Duke of Apulia and Calabria, and other territories in Italy and Sicily which he might wrest from the Greeks and the Saracens. The Norman duke, who was the greatest soldier of his age, extended his conquests throughout Southern Italy, and put an end to the dominion of the Eastern Emperors in Italy. He afterwards led a large army, officered by Norman knights, into the other territories of the Greek Empire, and captured Durazzo after a seven months' siege; and then marching eastward, he threatened Constantinople. He was, however, recalled by Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), to defend the Head of the Church against his inveterate enemy, Henry IV., Emperor of Germany.

21. Roger I., the brother of Robert Guiscard, wrested Sicily from the Saracens after a war of several years; and his son, Roger II., ruled over the Norman territories in Italy and Sicily, and founded the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; but with the death of William II., the grandson of Roger II., the Norman dynasty in Italy became extinct; and Southern Italy passed under the sway of the German House of Hohenstaufen, and thus remained until the reign of Manfred, who,

in 1266, was defeated in the battle of Benevento, by Charles of Anjou, who thus obtained the throne of the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, and retained it until the bloody massacre of the Sicilian Vespers in 1282.

22. By the massacre of the Sicilian Vespers, Charles of Anjou lost Sicily, but he and his posterity ruled over Naples until 1435, when Naples passed under the dominion of the kings of Aragon, who had ruled over Sicily from the time of the Sicilian Vespers. The French kings endeavored to wrest Naples from the kings of Aragon; but in 1504, Ferdinand the Catholic, King of Spain, effected the final subjugation of Naples and united it with Sicily. The kingdom of Naples and Sicily belonged to Spain for more than two centuries.

Naples and Sicily under the Spanish lords.

CHAPTER LIX.

LATIN STATES.—KINGDOM OF FRANCE.

CARLOVINGIAN KINGS OF FRANCE.—FRANCE UNDER THE HOUSE OF CAPET.

1. UNDER the Carlovingian dynasty, France was divided into a number of principalities virtually independent of the central power of the monarchy. The royal power was reduced to mere shadow, and France suffered greatly from the predatory inroads of the Normans from Scandinavia. Under Charles the Simple, (898-922), so called because of his imbecility, the royal authority in France fell into contempt, the insolent nobles possessed all the power, and the king was closely confined by Count Hugh of Paris.

France under the Carlovingian Dynasty.

2. In the year 911, A. D., a horde of Normans, led by Duke Rollo, made their appearance in France; and King Charles the Simple, unable to resist their progress, offered Rollo his daughter in marriage and to cede to him a large tract of territory between the Seine and the English Channel, on condition that he should embrace Christianity and acknowledge the

Duke Rollo and the Normans.

King of France as his feudal sovereign. Rollo accepted these propositions, and he and his followers settled in that part of Northern France called from them, Normandy. The Normans immediately abandoned their former predatory habits, and became peaceful citizens, cultivating the soil, practising the arts of civilized life, and adopting the religion, the language, and the customs and manners of the French. On the death of Louis V., the last Carolingian monarch of France, Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, usurped the French Throne. At this period the French kingdom consisted of only a small territory about Rheims and Paris.

3. Hugh Capet gained the French clergy to his interest by renouncing the rich abbeys which he had inherited from his father. In an assembly at Noyons, Hugh was formally elected King of France, ^{Accession of Hugh Capet.} and was immediately consecrated at Rheims.

(A. D., 987.) This was the commencement of the Capetian dynasty, which occupied the throne of France for three and a half centuries. The reign of Hugh Capet was disturbed by the restlessness and ambition of the French nobles. There were at this time eight powerful principalities in France, each independent of the French crown;—namely, Burgundy, Aquitaine, Normandy, Bretagne, Gascony, Flanders, Champagne, and Toulouse; and the royal authority was most insignificant.

4. Hugh Capet died in 996, and was succeeded on the French throne by his son, Robert the Pious. It was generally believed that the world was only to last 1,000 years after the birth of Christ; and on the approach of the year 1000, A. D., a general gloom and dread prevailed. The more serious and pious people employed themselves in acts of religious devotion. King Robert was excommunicated and his kingdom laid under an interdict by Pope Gregory V., and the king was obliged to divorce his beloved wife, ^{Supposed approach of the end of the World.}

Bertha, because she was his fourth cousin. Robert then married Constance of Provence, a proud and indolent princess.

5. On the death of King Robert the Pious, in 1031, his son, Henry I., ascended the throne of France; but Robert's widow, Constance, endeavored to place her favorite son on the throne. With the assistance of Duke Robert the Magnificent of Normandy, the father of King William the Conqueror of England, King Henry I. defeated the project of Constance, who ended her life in prison. So little was the authority of Henry I. respected that the leading French nobles, such as the Counts of Toulouse, Flanders, and Champagne, eclipsed the King in power.

6. King Henry I. died in 1060, leaving the crown of France to his son, Philip I.; and the wise and virtuous Count Baldwin of Flanders was appointed the young king's guardian. King Philip I. became a slave to his vices.

7. One of King Philip's most powerful vassals, Duke William of Normandy, conquered England and seated himself on the throne of that kingdom. This aroused the jealousy of Philip, who excited Robert, Duke William's son, to rebellion against his father. William besieged his rebellious son in a castle in Normandy; and Robert sallied forth, and encountered a knight, whom he threw down, horse and man, but when he suddenly discovered that he was about to slay his own father he assisted him to rise and implored his pardon.

8. During the reign of Philip I., the First Crusade was undertaken by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. Hundreds of thousands of Crusaders left Europe for the redemption of the Holy Land, and great numbers of them perished. Antioch and Jerusalem were, however, wrested from the infidels,

**Project of
Queen Con-
stance.**

**King Philip
I. and Count
Baldwin of
Flanders.**

**Duke Wil-
liam of Nor-
mandy.**

**The First
Crusade.**

and a new Kingdom of Jerusalem was established, which continued for nearly a century.

9. The condition of France under King Philip I. was most wretched indeed. The lawless nobles and knights erected castles in the vicinity of Paris, and committed the grossest outrages upon the unoffending inhabitants; but the insolent nobles were chastised by the king's son, Louis. In

Wretched condition of France under Philip I.

order to check the violence which at this time so universally prevailed, the bishops published what was called "The Truce of God," which enacted that no act of violence should be committed from Wednesday evening to Monday morning.

10. King Philip I. died in 1108, leaving the crown of France to his son, Louis VI., who, on account of his corpulence, was surnamed "the Fat." Louis VI.

was possessed of a good heart, an inflexible love of justice, a friendly disposition, and a gay and cheerful temper, although he had no taste for learning and no political talents. He was brave

Good character of Louis the Fat.

and active, and his magnanimity in sharing with his soldiers their hardships and dangers won for him their attachment and esteem. Louis the Fat acquired great popularity by humbling the lawless nobles and knights, who had perpetrated the greatest outrages upon the defenseless people.

11. With the view of humbling the French nobles, King Louis VI. granted to the inhabitants of cities and towns charters for forming themselves into associations for mutual defence, called Communes, which freed the citizens from feudal servitude, permitted them to nominate their own magistrates, and required them to take the field only at the command of their sovereign.

Formation of Communes.

12. King Louis VI. died in 1137, and was succeeded on the French throne by his son, Louis VII., surnamed "the Young," to distinguish him from his

Annexation of Aquitaine. father. Louis VII. had previously married Eleanor, the sole heiress of Aquitaine, thus uniting that extensive territory to the French crown. Count Thibault of Champagne had rebelled against the king, but had been reduced to submission and pardoned. But Thibault took up arms a second time; and Louis VII., exasperated at his conduct, attacked his castle of Vitry, and set it on fire, but the flames spread to a village close by and destroyed a church and many of its inmates. Shocked at this accident, the king made peace with Count Thibault; and, as an atonement for the dreadful accident, Louis VII., in connection with Conrad III., Emperor of Germany, engaged in the Second Crusade; but both monarchs were unfortunate in that undertaking, and after losing all but a few of their followers they returned to Europe.

13. King Louis VII. quarrelled with his wife Eleanor, and obtained a divorce from her, thus losing all the vast dower which he had received with her.

Loss of Aquitaine. Eleanor soon afterwards married Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Normandy, afterwards King Henry II. of England, and thus her extensive possessions were annexed to the English crown. For twenty years Louis and Henry were engaged in almost continual war, as the French king claimed the right of feudal superiority over the English monarch. During his war with the Duke of Normandy, Louis besieged Rouen, and after granting the citizens of the beleaguered town a truce, he perfidiously assaulted the city, but was justly punished by a vigorous repulse.

14. King Louis VII. died in 1180, and left the crown of France to his son, Philip II., surnamed Augustus, under whom the political condition of France underwent an entire change. Before this period, the King of France had been merely the feudal chief of a confederacy of princes, but now he

Remarkable increase of the Royal power.

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became an absolute monarch. Philip Augustus greatly improved Paris and enclosed the city with a strong wall, and built the famous palace of the Louvre. Eager for war with King Henry II. of England, one of the most powerful monarchs of that age, Philip Augustus induced that king's sons, Richard and John, to take up arms against their father.

15. King Philip Augustus, in conjunction with King Richard the Lion-hearted of England and the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa of Germany, undertook the Third Crusade. After taking Acre, the Kings of England and France quarrelled, and Philip Augustus returned to France. His ungenerous heart was filled with joy when Richard the Lion-hearted, while on his return to England, was imprisoned in Germany.

Quarrel between Philip and Richard the Lion-hearted.

16. Upon the death of Richard the Lion-hearted, in 1189, his brother John usurped the throne of England, and murdered his nephew, Prince Arthur of Bretagne, the rightful heir. Philip Augustus, desirous of the acquisition of Normandy, summoned John, as Duke of Normandy, to Paris, to answer for his conduct; and upon John's refusal to comply, the French king seized on all the English possessions in France,—namely, Normandy, Maine, Touraine, and Anjou.

Conquest of Normandy.

17. A powerful coalition was now formed against the King of France by the King of England, the Emperor of Germany, and the Count of Flanders. France was invaded, but King Philip Augustus defeated the united English, German, and Flemish forces, numbering 50,000 men, in the battle of Bouvines, near Tournay, on the 27th of August, 1214.

Coalition of England, Germany, and Flanders against France.

18. In the mean time, the Fourth Crusade, undertaken by French and Italian knights, resulted in the temporary subversion of the Greek Empire, and the

Crusade against the Albigenses. substitution, in its stead, of a new Latin Empire, with Count Baldwin of Flanders on the throne of Constantinople. The Crusade now undertaken against the new religious sect of the Albigenses, in Southern France, resulted in the defeat of Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse, the chief of the sect, and the sacrifice of thousands of Albigenses to the fanaticism of their conquerors.

19. The English barons, having risen in rebellion against King John, invited Prince Louis, a son of Philip Augustus, to come to England and be their king. **French Invasion of England.** Prince Louis accepted the invitation gladly, landed in England with a French military force, and had almost completed the conquest of that kingdom, when King John died, in 1216. Thereupon the English barons abandoned Prince Louis and refused to recognize him as their sovereign; and the prince was obliged to return to France.

20 On the death of King Philip Augustus, in 1223, his son, Louis VIII., became King of France. Louis VIII., surnamed "the Lion," was a weak monarch; **Successful war against Henry III. of England.** but the wise policy of his father had given such an impulse to the affairs of France that the French continually triumphed over the English, whose king, Henry III., had repeatedly attacked the French dominions.

21. Under the authority of the Pope, Louis the Lion undertook a campaign against the Albigenses; and with a powerful array he besieged Avignon, but only **Conquest of the Albigenses.** obtained possession of the town after a heroic defence on the part of its inhabitants, and after 20,000 of his troops had miserably perished from disease and famine.

22. King Louis VIII. died in 1226, a short time after the fall of Avignon, and left the crown of France to his eldest son, Louis IX., commonly called Saint

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Louis, on account of his piety. Saint Louis ^{Character of Louis IX. or St. Louis.} possessed a mild, upright, benevolent, and forgiving disposition. During the minority of Saint Louis, his mother, Queen Blanche, governed the French kingdom as regent.

23. Saint Louis undertook the Sixth Crusade against the infidels. Instead of leading an expedition to the Holy Land, Saint Louis invaded Egypt; and after taking Damietta, he was made a prisoner by the Sultan of Egypt, but was released on the ^{Sixth and Seventh Crusades.} payment of a heavy ransom. In the Seventh Crusade, twenty years later (A. D., 1270), Saint Louis sailed to Africa and besieged Tunis; but a plague which broke out in the French camp carried Saint Louis and many of his soldiers to their graves.

24. St. Louis was succeeded on the throne of France by his son, Philip III., surnamed "the Hardy," who continued the war against the Moors of Africa, and with his uncle, Charles of Anjou, King of ^{Reduction of the King of Tunis.} Naples and Sicily, reduced the King of Tunis to submission.

25. Charles of Anjou greatly oppressed his Sicilian subjects, who, in revenge, massacred 8,000 French in Palermo when the church bell sounded for vespers, on Easter day, 1282. This is known as the ^{Massacre of the Sicilian Vespers.} Massacre of the Sicilian Vespers. Charles of Anjou then lost Sicily, and that island passed under the dominion of Peter the Cruel, King of Aragon.

26. King Philip the Hardy died in 1285, and was succeeded on the French throne by his son, Philip IV., surnamed "the Fair." For seven years, Philip the Fair waged an unsuccessful war against ^{War with Edward I. of England.} King Edward I. of England for the acquisition of Guienne. Philip the Fair acquired Flanders, which he governed so oppressively that the Flemings rose in rebellion, massacred 3,000 French in Flanders, and success-

fully resisted all the efforts of the French king to compel them to submission. The Flemings were at this time celebrated for their skill in weaving and in other industrial arts.

27. A fierce quarrel arose between King Philip the Fair and Pope Boniface VIII., through the attempt of Boniface to prevent the taxation of the clergy in France. The French monarch treated with contempt every bull of excommunication issued by the Pope, and after the death of Boniface, Philip the Fair placed the Archbishop of Bordeaux in the Papal chair, with the title of Clement V., and transferred the residence of the Pope from Rome to Avignon, in the South of France, where it remained for seventy years.

28. King Philip the Fair also caused the celebrated order of Knights Templars to be condemned and abolished, for alleged corruption and immorality; and the Grand Master and many other members of the order were burned alive, while the rest were treated with the most barbarous cruelty.

During the reign of Philip the Fair, the representatives of the Third Estate, or the Communes, were called to meet with the nobility and the clergy in the grand council of the French kingdom, in order to give their consent to the levy of taxes. (A. D., 1302.)

29. On the death of King Philip the Fair, in 1314, the crown of France fell to his eldest son, Louis X., surnamed "Hutin," meaning disorder or tumult, from the tumultuous conduct of the French nobles and clergy, who compelled Louis to restore to them most of the privileges of which they had been deprived by Philip the Fair. Louis X. issued an order enfranchising all the French serfs within the royal domains. Louis X. was under the influence of his uncle, Charles of Valois, who caused DeMarigny, the illustrious prime min-

Quarrel between Philip the Fair and Pope Boniface VIII.

Dissolution of the order of Knights Templars.

Tumultuous conduct of the nobles.

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ister of Philip the Fair, to be executed on the absurd charge of sorcery.

30. On the death of King Louis X., in 1316, the throne of France fell to his brother, Philip V., surnamed "the Tall," who assembled the States-General, or The States-General—The Salic Law. the grand assembly of the French nation, to pronounce upon his right to the French throne, which was disputed by the daughter of Louis X. The States-General issued a decree declaring females incapable of inheriting the crown of France. This decree was based on the barbarous code of the Salian Franks, and is therefore called the "Salic Law." The reign of Philip the Tall is remarkable for a terrible persecution of the Jews in France, and many of them were barbarously massacred in Touraine.

31. Philip the Tall died in 1121, and as he only left daughters and no sons, his brother, Charles IV., surnamed "the Fair," became King of France by the Accession of Charles the Fair. operation of the Salic Law. On the death of Charles the Fair, without heirs, in 1328, the direct line of the House of Capet became extinct; and the crown of France fell to Philip of Valois, a nephew of Philip the Fair.

CHAPTER LX.

LATIN STATES—FRANCE UNDER THE HOUSE OF VALOIS.

1. PHILIP of Valois, or Philip VI., the first French king of the House of Valois, soon had a competitor to contend with, in the person of King Edward III. Claims of Edward III. of England. of England, who claimed the crown of France as a direct descendant, through his mother, of Philip the Fair; but the French considered this claim invalid, because, by the Salic Law, Isabella, Edward's mother, had no right to the French throne, and therefore Edward could inherit no claims from her. But the King of England, resolving to make his claim good by force of

arms, invaded France with a powerful army; and on the 25th of August, 1346, he defeated an immense French army under King Philip VI., in the famous battle of Crecy, in which the French lost 40,000 men, among whom was the blind old King John of Bohemia. In the battle of Crecy the English had several pieces of cannon, which was the first instance of those weapons of warfare being used. Among those who distinguished themselves by their bravery at Crecy was the English monarch's son, Edward the Black Prince.

2. After the battle of Crecy, King Edward III. laid siege to Calais, the gate to France. The inhabitants had made an obstinate defense for nearly a year, when, threatened with all the horrors of famine, they were finally forced to surrender

**Defence of
Calais.**

to the victorious invaders. It is said (though the story is now generally discredited) that the King of England, exasperated at the stubborn resistance of the citizens of Calais, agreed to spare the inhabitants if six of the principal citizens were brought to him, with halters about their necks, ready for hanging; whereupon Eustace St. Pierre, a wealthy merchant of Calais, offered himself as the first victim, and five other leading citizens followed his noble example. When the six citizens appeared before Edward III., the stern monarch ordered them to execution, and their lives were only spared through the earnest entreaties of the English nobles, of King Edward's heroic son, the Black Prince, and of his noble-hearted queen, Philippa, who fell on her knees before her husband and exhorted him not to violate the laws of religion and honor by so inhuman an act. King Edward III. expelled the French inhabitants of Calais and peopled the city with English; and for two centuries that important town remained in the possession of the English.

3. Near the close of the reign of Philip of Valois, the province of Dauphiny was annexed to the territories of

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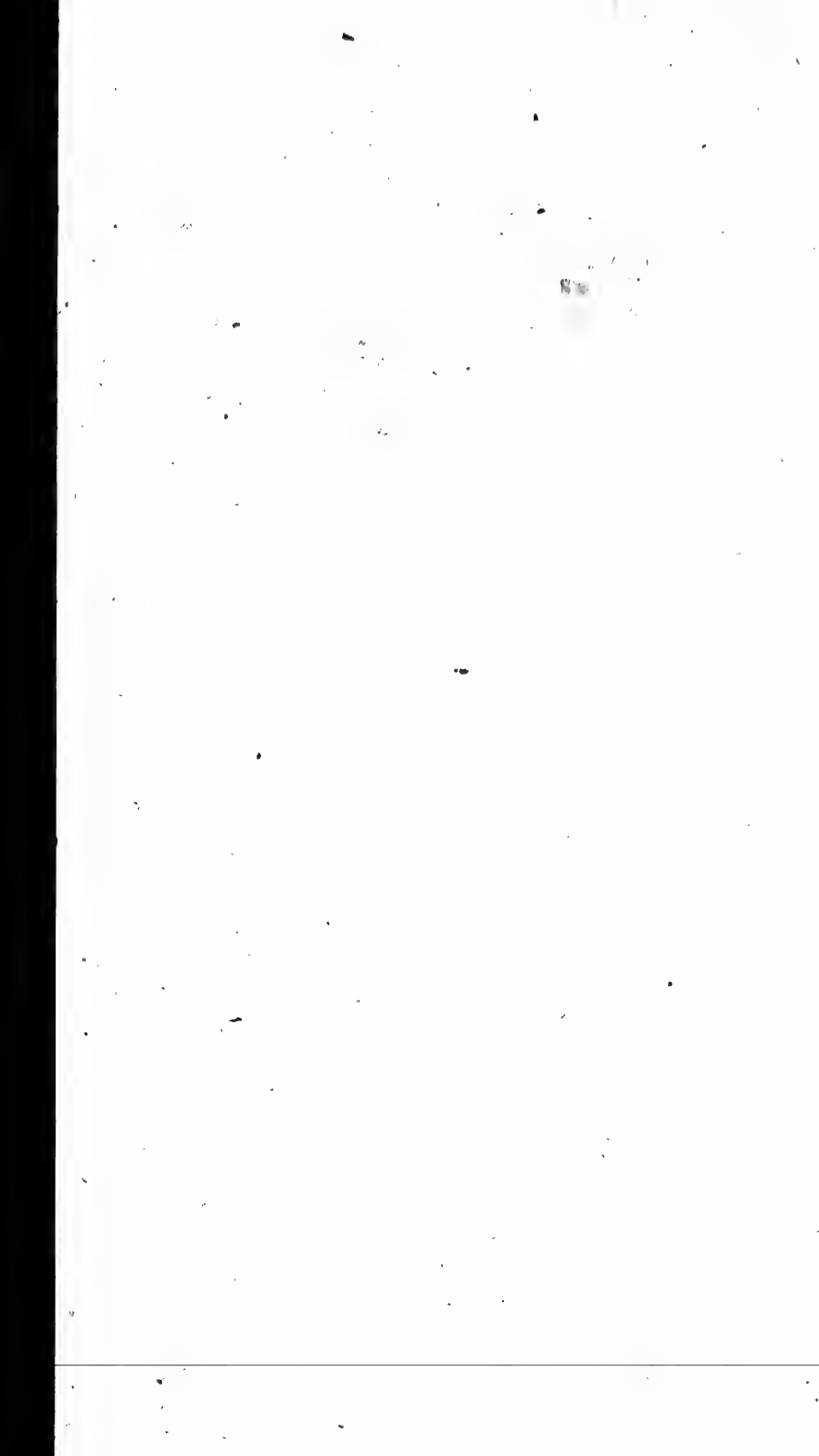
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the French crown, on condition that the ^{Acquisition} French king's eldest son should thereafter be ^{of Dauphiny.} called "The Dauphin," as the eldest son of the British monarch is styled "the Prince of Wales." During the years 1348 and 1349, the Black Plague raged throughout France, and in Paris alone 50,000 persons fell victims to its ravages.

4. King Philip VI. died in 1350, and was succeeded on the French throne by his son, John the Good. During this reign an English army of 12,000 men, ^{English} under Edward the Black Prince, landed in the ^{invasion of} province of Guienne, and advanced into the ^{France.} very centre of France, where it was confronted by an army of 60,000 Frenchmen under King John. The Black Prince hereupon offered to surrender the conquered territory and give up the war, if he were permitted to retreat unmolested; but the obstinacy of the French monarch, who insisted on terms of unconditional submission, brought on the celebrated battle of Poitiers, which was fought on the 19th of September, 1356, and in which the French were most disastrously defeated, and King John was taken prisoner.

5. King John was carried a captive to London by the victorious Black Prince, who treated the unfortunate monarch with the utmost generosity; and ^{King John's} during the four years of his captivity ^{captivity in} in the ^{London.} English capital, John was treated by King Edward III. more like a guest than a prisoner. During King John's captivity in London, his son Charles, the Dauphin, was made regent of France.

6. During the regency in France, the Parisian populace, under the leadership of Marcel, the chief of the municipality of Paris, endeavored to restrict the despotic power of the sovereign and to obtain ^{The States-General.} a share in the government of France. The States-General were assembled and conceded the privi-



leges demanded by the people of Paris; but these privileges were afterwards annulled, in consequence of which a frightful insurrection broke out and continued for some time, but it was finally ended by the death of Marcel and the defeat of the cause of popular liberty.

7. At this time a sanguinary insurrection of the French peasantry burst forth, in consequence of the miserable condition of serfdom in which the peasants had so long been kept by the despotic nobility. **Insurrection of the Jacquerie.** This great popular revolt is known as the "Insurrection of the Jacquerie," from Jacques Bonhomme, the name given in derision to a French peasant. The insurgent peasants sacked the feudal castles, and put to death their inmates, without respect to age or sex. After the peasants had been repulsed in an attack upon one of the towns, they were hunted down like wild beasts, and thousands of them were brutally massacred; and many of the rural districts were almost depopulated, and presented a sad picture of ruin and desolation.

8. In the mean time King John, still a captive in England, agreed to surrender to the English monarch a large portion of the French dominions, in order to obtain his release; but the States-General of France refused to ratify so humiliating a treaty; and King Edward III. of England again invaded France, but finally made peace, agreeing to release the French monarch on more reasonable conditions. **Another invasion of France by Edward III.** After a four years' captivity in England, King John the Good returned to his kingdom, and was received with almost universal demonstrations of joy by his subjects; but when his son, Louis, who had been delivered to the King of England as a hostage for the fulfilment of the treaty, escaped, the conscientious King John voluntarily returned to captivity in England, and died soon after his arrival there, A. D. 1364.

9. In 1363, the year previous to his death, King John

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the Good assigned to his son, Philip the Good, the Duchy of Burgundy, as a reward for his gallantry in the battle of Poitiers. This was the beginning of that celebrated Ducal House of Burgundy, which lasted more than a century, and which is so celebrated in French history.

Beginning of the Ducal House of Burgundy.

10. John the Good was succeeded on the throne of France by his son, Charles V., surnamed "the Wise," who was of a peaceful disposition, and whose wise measures contributed much to restore prosperity to the French kingdom. Charles the Wise was fond of study, and possessed talents for statesmanship. He founded the Royal Library in Paris, and liberally patronized literature and art.

Character of King Charles the Wise.

11. King Charles the Wise appointed the great general, DuGuesclin, to the position of High Constable of France. DuGuesclin was defeated and taken prisoner by the English under the Black Prince in the battle of Navaretta; but after the death of that great English warrior, the Constable conducted the war against the English with great success, depriving them of most of their territories in France.

DuGuesclin—Battle of Navaretta.

12. On the death of King Charles the Wise, in 1380, the crown of France fell to his son, Charles VI., who was then only twelve years old. During the minority of Charles VI., his uncle, the Duke of Anjou, acted as Regent of France. The unjust and oppressive taxes imposed upon the French people occasioned a formidable popular insurrection in Paris, and order was restored with great difficulty.

Regency of the Duke of Anjou—Popular insurrection in Paris.

13. The Flemings having revolted against their ruler, Count Louis of Flanders, a French army was sent to subdue them. In the battle of Rosbecque, in which the King of France himself was present, the Flemish leader, Philip Von Artevelde, and 25,000 of his followers, were defeated and slain.

Revolt of the Flemings—Battle of Rosbecque.

by the French commanded by Oliver Clissons, High Constable of France, A. D. 1382.

14. The great victory at Rosbecque strengthened the royal power in France. All the French towns which had resisted the tyrannical exactions of the monarch were obliged to yield, and all their citizens who had taken a conspicuous part in the popular movement were mercilessly put to death, 3,000 being led to the scaffold in Paris alone, A. D. 1382.

**Increase of
the Royal
Power.**

15. King Charles VI. at length became a victim to insanity; and while in consequence France was distracted

**Invasion of
France by
Henry V. of
England.**

by domestic dissensions respecting the Regency, King Henry V. of England invaded the French kingdom, took Harfleur, and on the 14th of October, 1415, with only 8,000 men, he defeated a French army of 50,000 men, in the great battle of Azincourt, and conquered Normandy, after taking its capital, Rouen. In 1422, the Treaty of Troyes was concluded, by which Henry V. of England was to become King of France on the death of King Charles VI., in exclusion of the rights of the Dauphin. Although the States-General of France ratified this treaty, it was never carried into effect, Charles VI. outliving Henry V. several months, A. D., 1422.

16. On the death of the imbecile Charles VI., in 1422, his son, the Dauphin, was crowned at Poitiers, King of France,

**Charles VII.
and Henry
VI. of Eng-
land crowned
Kings of
France.**

with the title of Charles VII.; but, in accordance with the Treaty of Troyes, the infant Henry VI. of England had already been crowned at Paris, King of England and France. The army of Charles VII. had been disastrously defeated by the Duke of Bedford, the English regent in France (1424); and town after town fell into the hands of the English, until in 1428, Orleans was the only stronghold remaining in the possession of the French, and even that city was besieged by the victorious invaders.

17. The English pushed the siege of Orleans with vigor. A sally was made by the French, but they were repulsed after a short engagement known as ^{Siege of Orleans—appearance of} "the Battle of the Herrings," so called because an attack had been made on an English ^{Joan of Arc.} escort which was conveying a supply of herrings to the camp of the besiegers. Orleans was on the point of surrender, when the beleagured city was relieved, and the deliverance of Charles VII. was effected by one of the most extraordinary circumstances recorded in history. Joan of Arc, a poor peasant girl of Dom Remy, in Lorraine, aged nineteen years, had been told by a prophecy that France could only be delivered from its English invaders by a virgin, and her mind became impressed with the belief that she herself was divinely commissioned to effect this great object. She soon induced others, among them King Charles VII. and his officers, to believe in the truth of her divine mission. Charles VII. gave her the command of his army, and she was admitted into Orleans, arrayed in armour and provided with a train of attendants. Under her leadership, the French, influenced by superstition, seemed inspired with fresh courage and hopes, and they soon compelled the English to raise the siege of Orleans. A. D., 1429.

18. Joan of Arc, now called the Maid of Orleans, next urged King Charles VII. to proceed to Rheims, in order to be there crowned and consecrated King of ^{Coronation of Charles VII. at} France; and after several more victories, ^{Rheims.} under the leadership of the valiant Maid, Rheims was wrested from the English, and Charles VII. was crowned in the great cathedral of that city, A. D., 1429. Joan then declared her mission finished, and wished to retire from the army; but as the French king insisted upon her remaining with the army until the expulsion of the English invaders from France, she complied with his wishes. As a reward for the heroine's services, Charles

VII. ennobled her family. The English lost town after town and suffered defeat after defeat. At length, the French officers, jealous of the fame of Joan of Arc, allowed the Duke of Burgundy, the ally of the English, to make her a prisoner in a sally from the town of Compiègne. The Duke of Burgundy sold her to the Duke of Bedford, the English regent in France, who caused the heroic Maid of Orleans to be burned alive, on the charge of sorcery, in the market place at Rouen, A. D., 1431.

19. Although the French were no longer led by the Maid of Orleans, still they were victorious; and finally, in 1453, the city of Calais was the only place **Expulsion of the English from France.** in all France remaining in the hands of the English. Duke Philip the Good, of Burgundy, had become reconciled to the French monarch. In 1436, King Charles VII., now surnamed "the Victorious," because of his triumph over the English, entered Paris, and reigned in peace. Although Charles the Victorious was relieved of the English invaders, the wickedness of his son Louis, the Dauphin, prevented him from enjoying quiet. Louis excited a rebellion against his father, who forgave him, but was soon obliged to banish him to Dauphiny, where he so oppressed the people that they compelled him to flee to Burgundy, where he excited dissatisfaction against Philip the Good. The wicked Dauphin sought to procure his father's death by poison, and the unhappy king was so afraid to taste food that he died of starvation, A. D., 1461.

20. The good Charles the Victorious was succeeded as King of France by his wicked son, Louis XI., who, immediately upon his accession, proceeded to measures so extreme to degrade the French nobles **The League of the Public Good.** that they formed a defensive league, known as "The League of the Public Good." At the head of this formidable confederacy were the Dukes of Berri, Bretagne, and Bourbon, and Count Charles of Charolois.

The league collected a large army, which advanced to Paris, but after some fighting without much result, the crafty king, by the most liberal promises, which he never intended to fulfil, contrived to dissolve the league.

21. At this period the Dukedom of Burgundy was the most prosperous country in Europe; and the cities of Antwerp, Bruges, Ghent and Arras were widely celebrated for their manufactures and commerce. **The Dukedom of Burgundy.** The Duke of Burgundy, though a vassal of the French crown, was more powerful than most kings, and his court was the most splendid in Europe. In 1468, King Louis XI. went to meet Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, at Peronne; and when Charles discovered that the artful Louis had treacherously excited the Duke's subjects to rebellion, he seized the perfidious monarch and kept him a prisoner for some time. The French king obtained his release only on the most humiliating conditions; he was obliged to surrender several counties to the Duke of Burgundy, and to accompany the Duke to Liege and assist in quelling the revolt which he himself had excited. The two princes vented their anger and disappointment on the unfortunate inhabitants, who were slaughtered without mercy.

22. In 1475, King Edward IV. of England invaded France with a powerful army. Louis XI., recollecting the terrible days of Crecy, Poitiers, and Azin- **Invasion of France by Edward IV. of England.** court, was exceedingly alarmed at this English invasion; but he succeeded by large bribes in inducing the English monarch to consent to a treaty of peace. In 1476, Charles the Bold, the mighty Duke of Burgundy, made war on the Swiss, by whom he was defeated in the great battles of Granson, Murten, and Nancy, in the last of which he was slain, A. D., 1477.

23. Upon the death of Duke Charles the Bold, King Louis XI. seized on Burgundy proper and reannexed that

territory to the possessions of the French crown; but he was frustrated in his attempts to obtain possession of the other territories of the late Duke, as Mary of Burgundy, the daughter of Charles the Bold, disgusted with the treachery of the French king, married the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, afterwards Emperor of Germany, who obliged Louis XI. to resign his pretensions. The result of this marriage was a rivalry of more than two centuries between France and Germany. After the death of Mary, the King of France incited the Netherland towns to rebellion against Maximilian, but the insurgents were soon reduced to submission.

24. By secret treachery or open violence, King Louis XI. had greatly enlarged the French dominions. His constitution was broken down and his mind was approaching imbecility. So suspicious was he that his oppressed subjects would revenge themselves by assassinating him, that he shut himself up closely in his castle of Plessis, which he strongly fortified, and no one was permitted to visit him without his invitation. In this gloomy castle, Louis diverted himself with various amusements, one of which was rat-hunting. Louis XI. was delivered from his miserable existence by a slow disease, of which he died in August, 1483.

25. The wicked Louis XI. left the French crown to his son, Charles VIII., who, on account of his kindness of manner and his amiable qualities, was surnamed "the Courteous." During his minority, Charles VIII. was under the guardianship of his aunt, the Duchess Anne of Beaujeu. Charles resolving upon the conquest of Brittany, or Bretagne, the only fief in France that yet remained independent of the French crown, a war ensued; and the Bretons were defeated by the French army in the

**Reannexation
of Burgundy.**

**Last days
and death of
King Louis
XI.**

**Charles the
Courteous
and the Ac-
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battle of St. Aubin, on the 28th of July, 1488. The Duke of Bretagne died soon afterwards; and his daughter Anne, sole heiress of the Duchy of Brittany, married King Charles VIII. in 1491, thus uniting the whole of France under one sovereign.

26. France was now at the highest pitch of power; and King Charles the Courteous resolved upon enforcing some claims which he had upon the kingdom of Naples, and for this purpose he invaded Italy with an army of 18,000 men; and after receiving the submission of many Italian cities,

Conquests of Charles VIII. in Italy.

he entered Rome and Naples in triumph. But when the King of France considered his Italian conquest secure, a powerful coalition was formed against him by the Italian princes, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, and Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The allies attempted to cut off Charles's retreat to France, but he defeated their united forces in the battle of Fornova, and reached his kingdom in safety; but all his conquests in Italy were lost to him. The whole kingdom of Naples was soon recovered from the French by the able Spanish general, Gonzalvo de Cordova, "the Great Captain."

27. On the death of Charles the Courteous, in 1498, without children, his third cousin, the Duke of Orleans, ascended the throne of France with the title of Louis XII., and proved to be one of the best kings that ever wore a crown. He was so solicitous to promote the welfare and happiness of his subjects, and was so dearly beloved

Character of Louis XII., "The Father of his People."

by them in return, that he was called "The Father of his People." Louis XII. took great pains to lessen the taxes and improve the administration of justice. He retained Brittany by marrying Anne, the widow of Charles VIII.

28. In 1499, King Louis XII. dispatched an army into Italy to enforce his hereditary claims upon Milan. The French conquered Milan and Genoa, and Louis XII.

French Con- and King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain
quests in Italy wrested Naples from its king, Frederic; but a
-League of quarrel arose between the robbers, and the
Cambray- Spanish king forced the French monarch to
Battle of yield his claim upon Naples. In 1508, Pope
Ravenna. Julius II., the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, King
 Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, and King Louis XII. of
 France formed the powerful League of Cambray against
 the Republic of Venice; but the Pope and Louis soon
 quarreled and open war ensued, and the Venetians secured
 the alliance of the Pope and the King of Spain. The
 French defeated the combined forces of their enemies in
 the great battle of Ravenna, on the 11th of April, 1512.
 In the following year (1513), King Henry VIII. of Eng-
 land invaded France and won the battle of the Spurs, near
 Tournay. Louis XII. died in 1515, and was succeeded by
 his cousin Francis I.

CHAPTER LXI.

LATIN STATES.—IBERIAN KINGDOMS.

1. DURING the Middle Ages, the Christian kingdoms of
 Aragon, Castile, and Portugal arose in the Iberian or
 Spanish peninsula. These kingdoms waged con-
 stant wars against the Moors in the Southern
 portion of the peninsula. In 1212, the united
 armies of Aragon and Castile achieved a great
 victory over the Moors at Tolosa, in the Sierra
 Morena, after which Saracen power in Spain rapidly
 declined.

2. Aragon conquered the Spanish provinces of Valen-
 cia, Murcia, and Catalonia; and also the Mediterranean
 islands of Majorca, Minorca, Sardinia, and
 Sicily; the latter during the reign of Peter
 III., and the kingdom of Naples in the time of
 Alphonso V. Castile wrested much of the Southern

portion of Spain from the Moors, thus obtaining the towns of Seville, Cadiz, and Cordova. The most celebrated kings of Castile were Alphonso the Wise, noted for his fondness for learning, particularly astronomy, and Alphonso XI., famous for his victories over the Moors.

3. Alphonso VI., King of Castile, bestowed the Earldom of Portugal on his chivalrous son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, who was to rule in fief. The Earl Alphonso I., having gained a great victory ^{Blas of Portugal.} over the Moors in 1139, was crowned the first King of Portugal, which he liberated from Castilian supremacy. King Alphonso III. extended Portugal to its present limits by the annexation of Algarve, the most southern province, which he had conquered from the Moors.

4. In 1474, Isabella ascended the throne of Castile, and in 1479, Ferdinand the Catholic became King of Aragon. The two kingdoms were united ^{Union of Aragon and Castile under Ferdinand and Isabella} into one, called Spain, by the marriage of Isabella with Ferdinand. The horrible Court of Inquisition, which condemned Mohammedans, Jews, and others charged with heresy, to tortures, imprisonment, and death itself, was established in Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella. ^{—The Inquisition.}

5. In 1481, Ferdinand and Isabella began a war against the Moorish kingdom of Granada, in the South of Spain, and their armies took the city of Granada, ^{Fall of Granada and end of the Saracen power in Spain—Conquest of} with its famous fortress, the Alhambra, in 1492, after a siege of ten years, thus putting an end to the Saracen power in Spain, after it had existed in that country, a period of ^{Navarre.} about eight centuries. In 1512, the whole of Spain was united under one sceptre by the conquest and annexation of the kingdom of Navarre, on the south side of the Pyrenees.

CHAPTER LXII.

GERMANIC STATES.

THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE OF GERMANY.—THE CARLOVINGIAN SOVEREIGNS OF GERMANY.—GERMANY UNDER THE SAXON AND FRANKISH EMPERORS.

1. The existence of the Holy Roman Empire of Germany began with the Partition Treaty of Verdun, in the year 843, A. D. Under the Carlovian-
Germany under the Carlovian-
 dynasty. sovereigns, Germany was in a most deplorable condition. Charles the Fat was deposed by the German nobles, for making a humiliating peace with the free-booting Normans, and his valiant nephew, Arnolph, was elevated to the imperial throne of Germany. Arnolph defeated the savage Avars and Slavonians, and called in the aid of the wild Magyars, or Hungarians, from the region of the Ural; but the Magyars soon proved to be a more dangerous enemy than either the Avars or the Slavonians.

2. On the death of Louis IV., the last of the Carlovian-
Germany an
 elective em-
 pire. sovereigns of Germany, in 911, the Dukes of Franconia, Saxony, Swabia, Bavaria, Thuringia, and Lorraine elected Duke Conrad of Franconia Emperor of Germany. From that time until 1806, Germany continued to be an elective empire. The Emperor Conrad I. spent the whole of his reign of seven years in repelling the invasions of the Hungarians.

3. On the death of the Emperor I. in 919, the German princes elected Duke Henry the Fowler of Saxony to the German imperial throne. Henry I. extended
Defeat of the
 Hungarians
 at Merseberg. the German Empire in all directions, and defeated the Hungarians in the battle of Merseberg, in 933.

4. On the death of Henry the Fowler, in 936, his son Otho I., surnamed "the Great," was elected Emperor of Germany. Italy was now annexed to the German Em-

pire; and Otho the Great was crowned at Milan with the iron crown of Lombardy, and at Rome with the golden crown of the Empire.

Italy annexed to the German empire. Otho crowned at Milan and Rome.

5. The Emperor Otho the Great made himself protector of the Pope, and induced the Roman people to swear that they would recognize no Pope without concurrence of the German Emperor. Otho the Great defeated the Magyars in the battle of Lechfeld, in 973, the year of his death.

Otho's protectorship over the Pope.

6. On the death of Otho the Great, his son, Otho II., was elected Emperor of Germany. While Otho II. was in Italy, the Greeks disputed his claims to possessions in that country; and the Emperor was defeated by the Greeks and the Saracens in the battle of Bassantello, and only escaped capture by his skill in swimming.

War with the Greeks in Italy.

7. Otho II. died in 983, and was succeeded on the imperial throne of Germany by his son, Otho III., who was more learned and refined than most princes of his time. Otho III. defeated the Slavonians, who had waged long wars against the German Empire, and compelled their leader, Michael, Duke of Poland, to do homage.

Character of Otho III.

8. On the death of Otho III., in 1002, Henry II. of Bavaria, a relative of the Othos, was chosen Emperor of Germany by the Electoral princes. Henry II. had a great fondness for the clergy; and on account of his piety he was surnamed "the Saint." The line of Saxon Emperors ended with the death of Henry, in 1024.

Character of Henry II.

9. On the death of Henry the Saint, Duke Conrad of Franconia was elected Emperor of Germany, with the title of Conrad II. Conrad received the iron crown of Lombardy at Milan and the imperial crown at Rome. Conrad II. united the

Burgundy annexed to the German empire.

Duchy of Burgundy with the German Empire. His son-in-law, Ernest of Swabia, claimed the imperial throne of Germany, and raised an insurrection, which was suppressed after a severe struggle. Conrad II. founded the Cathedral of Spire, where he and succeeding emperors of Germany were buried.

10. The Emperor Conrad II. died in 1039, and his son Henry III., was chosen his successor on the imperial throne of Germany. Henry III. endeavored to diminish the power of the German princes, make himself an absolute monarch, and change Germany from an elective to an hereditary empire. This emperor also tried to raise himself above the Roman pontiff. Three Popes were ruling at this time, and Henry III. intended to depose them and put German bishops in their places.

11. Henry III. died in 1056, and was succeeded as Emperor of Germany by his son, Henry IV., who so oppressed the nobility and people of Saxony, that they rose in rebellion against him, and compelled him to leave the Saxon territory, where he had established his court. After a fierce struggle, Henry IV. conquered the Saxon insurgents by a decisive victory which he gained over them on the Unstruth, in 1075.

12. The Emperor Henry IV. had a violent quarrel with Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), who endeavored to raise himself above all the princes of Christendom, whom he claimed to be his vassals. Henry was summoned to appear before Gregory, to answer for his conduct in Saxony, but refused obedience to the Pope's command, and caused the Council of Worms to proclaim the deposition of Hildebrand. The Emperor and his partisans were in consequence excommunicated by the Pope. About this time, Henry IV. lost the respect of his subjects by a quarrel with his wife; and

**Design of
Henry III.
against the
Pope.**

**Rebellion in
Saxony
against the
Emperor
Henry IV.**

**Quarrel of
Henry IV.
with Pope
Gregory VII.**

was threatened with dethronement by the German princes, unless he would free himself from his excommunication by Hildebrand. In this desperate situation, the emperor went to Italy, but was refused admission into the Pope's presence, until he had stood three days barefoot in the snow, without tasting food. After Henry had undergone this humiliation, he was released from the excommunication.

13. While the Emperor Henry IV. was in Italy, Rudolph of Swabia was invested with the dignity of Emperor of Germany. The consequence of this was a civil war, in which Henry was victorious; and Rudolph died from the loss of a hand in the battle of Elster.

Civil war between Henry VI. and Rudolph of Swabia.

14. In 1081, the Emperor Henry IV. led an army into Italy, deposed Pope Gregory VII., who had again excommunicated him, and placed Clement III. in the papal chair. The deposed Hildebrand retired to Naples, where he was protected by Robert Guiscard, the Norman king of that country.

Deposition of Hildebrand by Henry IV.

15. Henry IV. was at length excommunicated by Pope Clement III., and the imperial crown of Germany was claimed by two rivals. The emperor's own sons rebelled against their father. One of them, Henry, was elected emperor, and took his father prisoner. The emperor made his escape, and died at Liege, in Flanders, in the year 1106, A. D.

Henry's Quarrel with Pope Clement III.

16. Upon the death of Henry IV., his son, Henry V., who had so long warred against his father, obtained undisputed possession of the German imperial throne. Pope Clement III., who had been his ally against his father, now quarrelled with him. Henry V. was excommunicated by the Pope for seizing the cardinals; but he succeeded by the Concordat of Worms, in having the power of investing the bishops and abbots with their privileges bestowed on

Disagreement between Henry V. and Pope Clement III.



the emperor, while they were to be chosen to their offices by the Pope.

17. On the death of Henry V., the last German emperor of the house of Franconia, Lothaire of Saxony received the imperial crown of Germany. As the Hohenstauffens refused to recognize Lothaire as emperor, the latter strengthened himself by conferring Saxony on Duke Henry the Proud of Bavaria and forming a marriage alliance with the House of Bavaria. The Hohenstauffens, unable to withstand so powerful a combination, found themselves obliged to recognize Lothaire and to accompany him on his expedition to Italy.

CHAPTER LXIII.

GERMANIC STATES—(Continued).

GERMANY UNDER THE HOHENSTAUFFENS.—THE INTERREGNUM, A. D., 1250-1273.

1. ON the death of the Emperor Lothaire, in 1138, Conrad III., of the House of Hohenstauffen or Swabia, obtained the imperial crown of Germany from the Electoral Princes in the Diet of Coblentz. Henry the Proud of Bavaria, Lothaire's son-in-law, who aspired to the imperial dignity, rose in rebellion against Conrad III. A civil war was the consequence. It was during this civil war, at the siege of Weinsberg, that the cries of "Hurrah for Welf!" "Hurrah for Waibling!" from which arose the party designations of Welf and Waibling, or Guelph and Ghibelline, were first heard. The fortress of Weinsberg was compelled to surrender to the Emperor Conrad III. The Welfs, or Guelphs, were the partisans of the Pope, and the Waiblings, or Ghibellines, were the supporters of the Emperor of Germany. The contests of these two parties distracted Germany and Italy for three centuries. The death of Henry the Proud only put an end to the struggle between himself and the

**Rebellion of
Henry the
Proud.**

Emperor Conrad III. Conrad engaged in the Second Crusade, but he was unfortunate in that undertaking.

2. Conrad III. died in 1152, and was succeeded on the imperial throne of Germany by his nephew, the chivalrous Frederic Barbarossa, who ruled with firmness and wisdom, and made the German Empire respected abroad. Frederic Barbarossa led six military expeditions to Italy, for the purpose of subduing the rebellious Italians, who were founding independent republics, and openly setting the authority of the German Empire at defiance.

3. The powerful city of Milan refused to do homage to the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa, who received the crown of Lombardy at Pavia and the crown of the Empire at Rome. After Frederic's return to Germany, the Milanese destroyed the city of Lodi, which was loyal to the emperor. Frederic proceeded to Italy a second time, and overcame the Milanese in a bloody war. Milan fell into the emperor's hands, after a siege of nearly four years, when the walls and buildings of the proud and rebellious city were destroyed.

4. The Emperor Frederic Barbarossa at length quarrelled with Pope Alexander III., who excommunicated the Emperor and allied himself with the Lombards, who, led by the Milanese, who had rebuilt their city, had again revolted against the imperial authority, and built the city of Alexandria, which was named in honor of the Pope. Frederic Barbarossa left Italy, but soon returned with a powerful army and laid siege to Alexandria; but Henry the Lion of Brunswick refusing to aid the emperor, the German army was disastrously defeated by the gallant Milanese in the battle of Lignano, in 1176. Frederic Barbarossa himself was missing for several days. The heroism displayed by the chivalrous emperor won the respect of the Lombard con-

federates and of the Pope; and a truce of six years was agreed upon, which was the forerunner of the Peace of Constance, which was concluded in 1188, and which was honorable to all parties. At the conclusion of this Lombard war, Frederic Barbarossa returned to Germany.

5. Henry the Lion of Brunswick, the enemy of Frederic Barbarossa, had in the mean time conquered the Slavonic provinces of Mecklenburg and Pomerania and other small states, and annexed them to his dominions. He also founded the flourishing cities of Munich and Lubec. Henry the Lion was hated by all the other princes of the German Empire, as well as by the Emperor, so that the latter was enabled to take possession of Henry's dukedoms of Saxony and Bavaria. Frederic gave Saxony to Albert of Bernhard and other princes of the House of Hohenstaufen, and Bavaria to the House of Wittelsbach. But the Lion successfully defended himself with the power of his arms for several years; but was finally compelled to submit to the Emperor, when, being obliged to leave Germany, he retired to England.

6. Having overcome all his foes in his own dominions, the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa went with King Richard the Lion-hearted of England and King Philip Augustus of France on the Third Crusade, in which the emperor defeated the infidel Turks at Iconium, but he soon afterwards lost his life while crossing a stream. (A. D., 1190.)

7. Frederic Barbarossa's successor on the imperial throne of Germany was his son, Henry VI. This tyrannical sovereign spent most of his time in Italy. He desired to obtain the crown of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily for his family; but the Neapolitan nobles placed one of their own number, Tancred, on the throne of Naples and Sicily, on the death of the last Norman king. A war followed, in which the Emperor Henry VI. succeeded, with the aid of the German

Rise and fall
of Henry the
Lion of Brun-
swick.

Frederic
Barbarossa
as a Cru-
sader.

Conquests of
Naples and
Sicily by
Henry VI.

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Crusaders, in subduing the Neapolitans, and in securing the crown of Naples and Sicily for the Hohenstauffen family. The victors used the vanquished with the harshest severity, putting out the eyes of many of the captive Neapolitan nobles, burning some, and burying others alive.

8. On the death of Henry VI., a civil war arose respecting the succession to the imperial throne of Germany. Some of the German princes chose Otho IV., Civil war between the rival emperors. brother of Henry VI., while others proclaimed Philip of Swabia emperor. This civil war lasted ten years, during which many cathedrals and churches were destroyed.

9. Philip of Swabia was assassinated, in 1208, by Prince Otho of Wittelsbach, from motives of private r  venge; but a dispute now arose between the Emperor Otho IV. and Pope Innocent III. Assassination of Philip. This Pope, who was ambitious, asserted that, as he was the Head of the Church, he was superior to all the princes of Christendom, who were his vassals; but Otho resolved not to yield to the Pope, and was consequently excommunicated.

10. The Pope sent Frederic of Hohenstauffen to claim the Imperial crown of Germany; and a civil war followed between the Guelphs, or adherents of the Pope, and the Ghibellines, or supporters of the Emperor Otho IV. Frederic II. renewal of the civil war.

11. When Otho IV. died, in 1218, the right of Frederic II. to the Imperial throne of Germany was undisputed. The free-thinking and accomplished Frederic II. was engaged in a continual struggle with the Roman pontiff, who, fearing the loss of his temporal possessions and his power as Head of the Church, endeavored to separate Naples and Sicily from the dominion of the house of Hohenstauffen. As Frederic II. delayed going on a promised crusade against the infidels, he was excommunicated by Pope Gregory IX. Difficulties between Frederic II. and Pope Gregory IX. The

following year (A. D., 1228), the emperor went to Palestine on the Fifth Crusade, without having the excommunication removed. Frederic defeated the infidel Turks, and obtained Jerusalem, Nazareth, and Bethlehem from them by treaty; but the Pope forbade all Christian warriors from joining the standard of the emperor, who was crowned King of Jerusalem without being consecrated by the Church. Frederic II. soon returned to Europe, and proceeded to Italy to protect his Neapolitan possessions, which had been invaded by Papal troops. The Emperor drove the invaders from Naples and marched toward Rome, when the Pope made peace with Frederic and freed him from the excommunication.

12. Frederic II. now returned to Germany and devoted his attention to the internal affairs of his empire, but his determination to enforce the stipulations of the Peace of Constance involved him in a furious war with the Lombard towns, which refused to recognize the regalian rights which the Emperor claimed over them. Frederic, assisted by the Ghibellines and by the Saracens whom he had settled in Italy, subdued the Lombards after a sanguinary contest.

13. When Frederic II. threatened Milan with the same fate which it had experienced from Frederic Barba-rossa, and created his son Enzo King of Sardinia, he was again excommunicated by Pope Gregory IX., who accused the free thinking Emperor of being an enemy to the Christian religion and a secret Mohammedan. The emperor repelled all the Pope's charges against him, but as public opinion was on the side of the Church, the Pope got the better in the quarrel. Gregory IX. died in 1241. His second successor in the papal chair, Innocent IV., summoned a Council of the Church at Lyons, in France, and excommunicated the Emperor Frederic II., whom he considered false to the Church and a believer in Mohammedanism.

14. Another fierce civil war now broke out in Germany and Italy between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines. The Guelphic party in Germany chose Henry Raspe of Thuringia as emperor, in 1246. After the battle of Ulm, in Swabia, Henry died, whereupon Count William of Holland was chosen to succeed him. The civil war was carried on with great cruelty in Italy by both parties.

*Civil War—
Henry Raspe
of Thuringia
and William
of Holland.*

15. The Emperor Frederic II. died in 1250, and was succeeded in the imperial dignity by his son, Conrad IV., who with his half-brother, Manfred, King of Naples, was excommunicated by Pope Innocent IV., who declared Naples and Sicily to be papal fiefs. The Emperor Conrad IV. soon died; and Pope Urban IV., the second successor of Innocent IV., bestowed Naples and Sicily as papal fiefs on Duke Charles of Anjou, brother of Saint Louis, King of France. Manfred was defeated and killed in the battle of Benevento, in 1266; and with the defeat and execution of his son Conradine ended the power of the Ghibellines and the House of Hohenstauffen in Naples.

*Conrad IV.,
and the Fall
of the House
of Hohen-
stauffen.*

16. After the death of the Emperor Frederic II., in 1250, Germany was reduced to a most deplorable condition. Lawlessness and robbery prevailed to an alarming extent in every part of the Empire. The Princes of the Empire were constantly at war with each other. Foreign princes were elected Emperors of Germany. Charles of Cornwall, brother of King Henry III., of England, was chosen by one faction, and Alphonso the Wise, King of Castile, by another. This interregnum in Germany lasted about twenty-three years. (A. D., 1250-1273.)

*Deplorable
condition of
Germany.*

17. In Northern Germany, the leading towns, such as Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Stralsund, Riga, and others, united themselves in a confederation well known in history as the "Hanseatic League."

*The Hansa-
tic League.*

The objects of this confederacy of cities were the advancement of commerce, the suppression of piracy and lawlessness, and the restoration and preservation of public order. In Western Germany, the towns of Worms, Spire, Mayence, Strasburg, Basle, and others, formed the "Confederation of the Rhine," also in the interest of social order.

CHAPTER LXIV.

GERMANIC STATES.—EMPERORS OF DIFFERENT HOUSES.

1. In 1273, the Electoral Princes of the German Empire chose the energetic, chivalrous, and pious Count Randolph **Overthrow of Hapsburg to the imperial throne of Germany.** King Ottocar of Bohemia refused to recognize **and Death of Ottocar, King of Bohemia.** Rodolph, and the emperor consequently waged war against the Bohemian king and overthrew him in the bloody and decisive battle of Marchfield, in 1278. Ottocar himself was among the slain.

2. The Emperor Rodolph left Wenceslaus, Ottocar's son, in possession of only Bohemia and Moravia. Ottocar's **Founding of the Royal Austrian House of Hapsburg.** other territorial possessions—namely, Austria, Styria, and Carniola—Rodolph bestowed on his own sons, and thus became the founder of the Royal Austrian House of Hapsburg, which has ever since occupied the Austrian throne.

3. By his energy, firmness, and justice, Rodolph succeeded in restoring law and order throughout the Empire. **Restoration of Order in Germany.** The chivalrous Emperor traversed Germany, and reduced the lawless nobles and robber knights to submission, and razed their castles and strongholds to the ground. The Illustrious Rodolph died in 1291, and was buried in the Cathedral of Spire.

4. On the death of Rodolph of Hapsburg, in 1291, the German Electoral Princes chose Count Adolph of

Nassau to the imperial throne. Adolph purchased a portion of the Thuringian territories from Duke Albert the Uncourteous,—a step which involved the emperor in a war with Albert's sons, Frederic, "with the bitten cheek," and Dietzman, who were heirs to their father's territorial possessions.

Purchase of
Thuringia by
Adolph.

5. The disgraceful and dishonest means which the Emperor Adolph employed for the aggrandizement of his family, rendered him exceedingly unpopular with the German people, and disgusted the Electoral Princes to such a degree that they deposed him in 1298, and elected Albert of Austria, son of Rodolph of Hapsburg, emperor in his stead. Adolph resolved upon a struggle to preserve his crown, but was defeated and killed at Worms by Albert.

Depose-
ment of
Adolph.

6. Helvetia was a component part of the German Empire. When the Hapsburgs, whose territorial possessions lay to the north of the Swiss Cantons, came into possession of the hereditary Austrian States, they endeavored to annex Switzerland to the hereditary Austrian dominions, and the Emperor Albert's governors were instructed to exercise the greatest tyranny over the sturdy Swiss mountaineers.

Austrian
Tyranny over
the Swiss.

7. The tyranny of the Austrian governors in Switzerland led to the formation of the League of Rütli by three Swiss Cantons,—Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden; and the tyrannical governors were expelled by the Swiss. One of these governors, Gesler, according to a well-known legend, was killed by William Tell, whom the tyrant had compelled to shoot an apple from his son's head, for refusing to bow to the ducal cap of Austria, which the governor had placed upon a pole in a conspicuous place. The assassination of the Emperor Albert, in the year 1308, by his nephew, John of Swabia, only saved the Swiss from his vengeance.

League of
Rütli—
Legend of
William Tell.

8. Upon the assassination of Albert of Austria, the

Electoral Princes of Germany invested Henry VII., of the House of Luxemburg, with the imperial dignity. Henry VII. led a military expedition into Italy, where he was well received by the Ghibellines; but the Guelphs rose against the Emperor. Henry marched to attack Florence, a Guelphic city; but he died on the way, and was buried in the Ghibelline city of Pisa. (A. D. 1313.)

9. On the death of Henry VII., another civil war arose in Germany concerning the succession to the imperial throne. Some of the German Electoral Princes chose Louis of Bavaria, while others declared for Frederic the Fair of Austria. Frederic was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Muhlendorf; but Duke Leopold of Austria, Frederic's brother, refused to accept peace, and Pope John XXII., who sided with Leopold, excommunicated Louis the Bavarian. Frederic the Fair was at length restored to freedom, on condition of persuading his brother Leopold and the Pope to agree to a peace; but as neither Duke Leopold, nor the Head of the Church, would listen to any proposals of peace, the honest Frederic voluntarily returned to captivity; which conduct led to the closest friendship between Frederic and Louis, and the latter was willing to allow his rival a share in the Empire, but the Electoral Princes would not agree to such an arrangement.

10. Upon the assassination of the Emperor Albert I., in 1308, his brother Leopold succeeded him in the sovereignty of the hereditary Austrian territories. Duke Leopold marched against the Swiss Confederates, but he was thoroughly defeated by them in the narrow pass of Morgarten, in 1315, and only saved himself by a disgraceful flight from the scene of action. The three revolted cantons, Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden, were soon joined by the towns of Lucerne, Berne, Zug, and Zurich.

Henry's Expedition to Italy

Civil war between the rival emperors.

The Swiss Confederation.

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11. Soon after Frederic the Fair had returned to captivity, his brother, Duke Leopold of Austria, died; and as Pope John XXII. still obstinately refused peace, the Emperor Louis appointed Frederic the Fair regent of the Empire, and led an army into Italy to humble the stubborn pontiff. Louis caused another Pope to be elected; and before his return to Germany, Frederic the Fair had died. In consequence of the obstinacy with which Pope John XXII. and his successor, Benedict XII., retained the excommunication against the Emperor Louis, the German Princes declared in the Electoral Diet that in future the confirmation by the Pope should be unnecessary to the validity of the election of Emperors.

Quarrel between the Emperor Louis and Pope John XXII.

12. The ambition of the Emperor Louis finally made him unpopular, and the Electoral Princes raised Charles IV., son of King John of Bohemia, of the House of Luxemburg, to the imperial dignity; but Charles was not fully acknowledged Emperor until Louis the Bavarian had been killed in a bear hunt near Munich.

Charles IV., of Luxemburg.

CHAPTER LXV.

GERMANIC STATES—(Continued).

GERMANY UNDER THE HOUSE OF LUXEMBURG.

1. THE Emperor Charles IV. was an ambitious and avaricious monarch; but he did much for the welfare and prosperity of Germany. In 1348, he founded the University of Prague, which was attended by over 5,000 students. Charles IV. also established the code of laws known as the "Golden Bull," by which the election of Emperors was left exclusively to the seven leading Princes of Germany.

Founding of the University of Prague

2. On the death of Charles IV., in 1378, his son, the dissolute and hard-hearted Wenceslaus, was chosen Em-

**Lawlessness
and confu-
sion—The
Faust-recht.**

peror of Germany. During the reign of Wenceslaus great confusion and lawlessness prevailed throughout the Empire. The only law which prevailed over all others was the Faust-recht, or club-law, which called upon every man to take care of himself.

3. To put an end to the prevailing disorder and confusion, the towns of Southern and Western Germany formed confederations against the lawless nobles and knights. To oppose these confederations of towns, the Knights also united

**Wars between
the cities and
the knights.**

themselves in leagues. Destructive wars ensued between the cities and the knights, and the people of South Germany were reduced to great distress.

4. Duke Leopold of Austria was at this time engaged in a war with the Swiss Confederates. In 1386, the Swiss

**The Swiss—
Battle of
Sempach.**

gained a victory over Leopold and his Austrian and German chivalry in the battle of Sempach, famous for the self-devotion of Arnold Winkelried, a gallant knight of Unterwalden, who plunged into the midst of the enemy, tearing their spears from their hands and burying them in his body, and opened a way for his countrymen, who rushed upon the Austrians and killed or routed their whole force. Duke Leopold and 656 of his nobles were among the slain.

5. Disorder, robbery, and lawlessness prevailed to such an extent in Germany that the Electoral Princes deposed Wenceslaus from the imperial throne,

**Deposition of
Wenceslaus.**

in the year 1400, and chose Rupert of the Palatinate in his stead. Rupert, however, did not succeed in restoring order and tranquillity to the German Empire. He also failed in his endeavors to heal the dissensions in the Church.

6. The Emperor Rupert died in 1410, and Sigismund, King of Hungary, brother of Wenceslaus, received the

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imperial dignity from the electoral Princes of Germany. In order to heal the dissensions in the Church, the Emperor Sigismund induced Pope John XXIII. to summon a great Council of the Church at Constance. For seventy years, the Popes had resided at Avignon, in France. The Italians and Germans, not succeeding in having the papal residence reëstablished in Rome, elected another Pope: so there were now two Popes, one at Avignon and another at Rome. A Council of the Church which had convened at Pisa proclaimed the deposition of the two Popes and chose another in their stead; but as the two Popes would not resign their dignities, there were now three Popes reigning at the same time. To remove this scandal, and to purge the Church of its many abuses and corruptions, the grand Council of Constance was called. The Clergy and Church dignitaries from all Western and Central Europe hastened to Constance at the appointed time, and 150,000 men are said to have been assembled there. The first business of the Council was the deposition of the three Popes and the elevation of Martin V. to the pontifical chair.

7. The Council of Constance, without effecting any reformation in the Church, devoted itself earnestly to the consideration of the doctrines and opinions differing from those of the Church, and condemned the writings of John Wickliffe, the great English reformer, to be burned. The Council also summoned the learned and pious John Huss, a professor in the University of Prague, who had adopted the opinions of Wickliffe, and preached against the power of the Pope and condemned many of the practices of the Church, to appear and to answer for his conduct. Being provided by the Emperor Sigismund with a safe-conduct, Huss went to Constance, but as soon as he arrived there he was imprisoned for preaching heretical doctrines. Having refused to recant, Huss was burned alive, in 1415.

*Martyrdom
of John Huss
and Jerome
of Prague.*

by order of the Council of Constance, notwithstanding the Emperor's promise that he should safely return to Prague, the Council being of the opinion that promises made to heretics were not binding. The following year (1416), Jerome of Prague, a Bohemian nobleman, the associate and disciple of Huss, also perished at the stake.

8. The horrible deed just mentioned, aroused the adherents of Huss in Bohemia to a furious religious war of sixteen years' duration, in which they took a terrible revenge on the Empire and the Church for the death of the great reformer. In vain did the Pope issue interdict after interdict against the Hussites. They stormed the town-house at Prague and murdered the councillors, which act so enraged the ex-Emperor Wenceslaus that he died of apoplexy. Under the leadership of the valiant John Ziska, the Hussite Bohemians defeated the armies of the Emperor Sigismund in many bloody battles. They burned churches and convents in Bohemia and Saxony, and compelled Brandenburg and Bavaria to pay tribute. By the death of Wenceslaus, his Bohemian crown fell to his brother, the Emperor Sigismund, but the latter was unable to obtain possession of the kingdom, until a reconciliation was brought about between the Church and the moderate Bohemians, or Calixtines, and until the radical Hussites, or Taborites, suffered a defeat near Prague. Some of the Hussites afterwards withdrew from the Church, and formed the sect since known as "Bohemian and Moravian Brethren."

Hussite
War.

CHAPTER LXVI.

GERMANIC STATES—(Continued).

GERMANY UNDER THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

1. AFTER the death of Sigismund, in 1437, his son-in-law, Albert II., of the House of Austria, or Hapsburgh, was

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chosen Emperor of Germany, from which time <sup>The Haps-
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an Dynasty.</sup> until the dissolution of the German Empire, in 1806, the throne of Germany was occupied, with little intermission, by princes of the Hapsburgh-Austrian dynasty.

2. The Emperor Albert II. died in 1439, and his nephew, the weak and imbecile Frederic III., was elected his suc-

cessor on the imperial throne of Germany. <sup>The Council
of Basle,
A. D. 1431-
1449.</sup>

Another great Council of the Church had been assembled at Basle, in 1431, during the reign of Sigismund, for the purpose of effecting the removal from the Church of all the abuses and corruptions which disgraced it. The Council of Basle continued in session until 1449, a period of nearly eighteen years, during which it endeavored to diminish the power of the Pope. To frustrate the designs of the Council, the Pope ordered it to be removed to Ferrara, and afterwards to Florence; but the members of the Council refused to obey the order of the Father of the Church, and elected another Pope in his stead. Having secured the support of the Emperor Frederic III., the lawful Pope, Eugenius IV., finally triumphed; and the Church was left in her corruption. After having acknowledged Nicholas V., the successor of Eugenius IV., as Pope, the Council of Basle dissolved itself (1449).

3. The Emperor Frederic III. possessed no talents for government. He looked on with seeming indifference when the Ottoman Turks were threatening his hereditary Austrian estates with plunder and desolation, and when the mighty Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy was extending his dominions to the banks of the Rhine, while at home the imperial authority fell into contempt. <sup>Imbecility of
Frederic III.</sup>

4. The German empire was again a theatre of the greatest lawlessness. The German Princes claimed the right of carrying on war against each other, and made themselves independent of the authority of the Emperor. <sup>Feuds of the
Princes, No-
bles and
Cities.</sup> A bloody war was waged by

the Swabian League against the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, the Achilles of Germany,—a war in which nine battles were fought and two hundred towns and villages laid in ashes. In Western Germany raged the war of the Palatinate, in which Ulric of Wurtemberg, the Margrave of Baden, and the Bishop of Metz were defeated and made prisoners by the Count Palatine, Frederic the Victorious, near Seckenheim; in 1461. Notwithstanding his success Frederic the Victorious could not prevent the deposition, of his ally, the Archbishop of Mayence, in whose cause he had taken up arms.

5. The weak and imbecile Frederic III. died in 1493, and was succeeded in the imperial dignity by his son, Maximilian I., who succeeded in securing the establishment, by the Diet of Worms, of the Land-friede, or Land-peace, which put an end to the prevailing lawlessness and private warfare in Germany. The Land-friede forbade any private redress of injuries by arms under the penalty of outlawry; and an Imperial Chamber was established to settle disputes among the Princes, and the German Empire was divided into ten Circles.

6. The Swiss having refused to recognize the Imperial Chamber, the Emperor Maximilian marched against them with an army, but he was defeated and compelled to retreat, and in the Peace of Basle, in 1499, to acknowledge the independence of Switzerland.

7. The reign of Maximilian I. was an important epoch in the history of Europe; as it was the transition period between the Middle Ages and Modern Times,—the period when the night of barbarism was passing away and the light of civilization was again dawning on Europe; when the Feudal System was giving way to more enlightened usages; and when Chivalry was in its decay. Maximilian died in 1519, and was succeeded as Emperor by his grandson, Charles V.

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CHAPTER LXVII.

KINGDOM OF ENGLAND.

ENGLAND UNDER THE SAXON AND DANISH KINGS.

1. IN the year 827, A. D., the seven kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy in Britain were united, under the government of Egbert, King of Wessex, into one great kingdom, called Angle-land, or England. **Founding of the kingdom of England.** Egbert had been educated at the court of Charlemagne, and was an enlightened and accomplished prince.

2. During the reigns of Egbert and his successors of the Anglo-Saxon dynasty, the Danes, a daring Scandinavian tribe, were continually making irruptions into England and securing a vast amount of booty, which they carried off to their own country. **Predatory incursions of the Danes into England.**

3. During the reign of the good and illustrious Alfred the Great, who ascended the throne of England in 871, A. D., the Danes obtained possession of the greater part of the English kingdom; and Alfred became a fugitive among his Anglo-Saxon subjects. **King Alfred the Great and the Danes.** On one occasion, King Alfred went into the camp of the Danes, disguised as a harper; and after having obtained the knowledge he wanted, returned to his own subjects and led them against the Danes, whom he conquered after a severe struggle. The Danes, whom Alfred had made prisoners, and among whom was their chief, Guthrum, were allowed to remain in England, on condition of becoming Christians. King Alfred the Great had a great fondness for learning, and he gave great encouragement to the arts, sciences, and literature. He founded the University of Oxford, improved London, reformed the Saxon division of the kingdom into counties or shires, instituted trial by jury, and laid the foundations of the English navy. Alfred the Great, who was himself the

most learned man in the kingdom, and who was as virtuous as he was learned, died in the year 901, A. D., and was succeeded on the throne of England by his son, Edward the Elder.

4. After the death of Alfred the Great the Danes again ravaged England; and in the reign of King Ethelred II., who ascended the English throne in 978, they obtained possession of the greater portion of the country, and King Ethelred several times bribed them to leave the kingdom. When the Danes again returned to England, in the year 1002, A. D., and committed their former ravages, King Ethelred II. caused all the Danes in England to be massacred. To avenge their death, Sweyn, King of Denmark, with a large army of Danes and Norwegians, invaded England, which he soon subdued. King Ethelred II. fled to Normandy, but soon afterward returned to England.

5. King Ethelred II., at his death, was succeeded on the English throne by his son, Edmund Ironside. Sweyn's son, Canute the Great, King of Denmark, invaded England in 1016; and on the death of Edmund Ironside, the next year, became sole King of England. At first Canute the Dane treated his Anglo-Saxon subjects with great severity, but he soon embraced Christianity, and thereafter governed with mildness and wisdom. Canute the Great was one of the most powerful monarchs of his time; and before his death he wore the crowns of four kingdoms, having been King of Denmark since his father's death, in 1013, and having conquered England in 1016, Sweden in 1025, and Norway in 1027.

6. On the death of Canute the Great, 1035, his son Harold, surnamed "Harefoot," on account of his swiftness in running, became King of England. Harold Harefoot died in 1039, and was succeeded on the throne of England by his brother Hardi-

Renewal of the incursions of the Danes—Massacre of the Danes in England.
Reign of Canute the Great.
Short reigns of Harold Harefoot and Hardicnute.

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canute, who died after a tyrannical reign of two years, A. D., 1041.

7. Upon the death of Hardicanute, in 1041, the Saxon dynasty was restored to the throne of England, in the person of Edward the Confessor. On Edward's death, in 1066, the English crown was usurped by his wife's brother, Harold. Tostig, Harold's brother, claimed the English throne, and, with the aid of the Kings of Scotland and Norway, he raised a large army, but was defeated by Harold in a great battle on the River Tyne, in the North of England, on the 25th of September of the same year, A. D., 1066.

8. A few days after Harold's victory over his brother, Duke William of Normandy, to whom Edward the Confessor had bequeathed the English kingdom, and whose pretensions were sanctioned by the Pope, landed on the Southern coast of England, at the head of 60,000 men. In the great battle of Hastings, which was fought on the 14th of October, 1066, Harold was killed, and the Duke of Normandy gained a victory which changed the whole fate of England.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

ENGLAND UNDER THE NORMAN DYNASTY.

1. The battle of Hastings made the Duke of Normandy King of England. From this time he was called "William the Conqueror," and his subjugation of England is styled "The Norman Conquest." The immediate result of the battle of Hastings gave William only about one-fourth of England, and it was only after a war of seven years that the Conqueror completed the subjugation of the entire kingdom.

2. William the Conqueror introduced the Feudal System into England by dividing the lands of the conquered king-

Introduction of the Feudal System into England.

dom among his Norman favorites, thus depriving the Anglo-Saxon nobility of their rights, and reducing the English peasants to a condition of serfdom. The account of the survey of the lands then made was written in Domes-Day Book, or "Book of Judgment," which is preserved in the Tower of London to this day.

8. William the Conqueror died in 1087, and was succeeded as King of England by his second son, William Rufus, or "The Red," so called from the color of his hair; while his eldest son, Robert, became Duke of Normandy. King William Rufus was involved in quarrels with his brothers Robert and Henry. He also waged war against Malcolm, King of Scotland. In order to obtain money to join in the First Crusade, Robert sold his duchy of Normandy to William Rufus, who obtained money to pay for it by forced levies upon his English subjects.

Quarrel between King Henry I. and his Brother Robert.

4. King William Rufus was accidentally killed by one of his companions while hunting, in the year 1100, A. D., and was succeeded on the throne of England by his younger brother, Henry; his elder brother, Robert, being absent in the Holy Land. King Henry I. was surnamed Beauclerc, or "Good Scholar." After his return from Palestine, Robert recovered Normandy; but a war arose between him and Henry I., and Robert was made prisoner and ended his days in a castle in Wales.

Stephen's Usurpation. Civil War.

5. On the death of King Henry I., in 1135, the English throne was usurped by Count Stephen of Blois, the rightful claimant being Henry's daughter, Matilda, the wife of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou. The result of Stephen's usurpation was a civil war, which ended in the triumph of Matilda, and she was declared Queen of England; but her tyranny and arrogance disgusted her English friends, and

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she was finally compelled to flee from the kingdom; and Stephen was restored to the throne.

CHAPTER LXIX.

ENGLAND UNDER THE PLANTAGENETS.

1. UPON the death of King Stephen, in 1154, the Plantagenet dynasty ascended the throne of England, in the person of Henry II., of Anjou, Matilda's son. Henry II. was one of the greatest monarchs of the Middle Ages, and his reign was cotemporary with that of Frederic Barbarossa in Germany. In order to check the usurpations of the clergy of England, King Henry II. assembled the English nobles and priests at Clarendon, in 1164; and by the "Constitutions of Clarendon," which were framed by this assembly, the privileges of the English clergy were restricted. But Pope Alexander III. and Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, rejected the Constitutions of Clarendon; and a long and bitter quarrel ensued between the King and the Archbishop. At last, Henry exclaimed in a fit of anger, "Will no one rid me of this troublesome priest!" whereupon four of the King's servants went to Canterbury and killed Becket. The consequence of this assassination was the final triumph of the Church; the assassins were punished, the Constitutions of Clarendon were abolished, and the murdered Becket was canonized by the Pope. Thousands of Pilgrims visited Becket's altar, and King Henry II. at length went to the tomb of the murdered Archbishop, and there did penance for the crime by allowing the priests to assault him with rods.

2. At this time Ireland was divided into five separate kingdoms. In 1171, the Earl of Pembroke, surnamed

Usurpations
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Conquest of
Ireland by
the English.

Strongbow, went over into Ireland to assist Dermot Maumrogh, King of Leinster, who had been driven from his dominions by the other Irish princes. Dermot soon recovered his kingdom, which, at his death, the following year (1172), he left to Earl Strongbow, who had married his daughter. Strongbow immediately resigned his kingdom to King Henry II., who immediately invaded Ireland and subdued the whole island. (A. D., 1172). Ever since this event the Emerald Isle has been subject to the English crown.

The sons of King Henry II. were several times induced by their wicked mother, Eleanor, to take up arms against their father, and were assisted in their rebellion by the Kings of Scotland and France, and also by the English barons. King William of Scotland was taken prisoner by a band of English knights, but was afterwards released, on condition that he and his successors should do homage to the English monarchs for their crown. King Henry II. died in 1189, of grief and anxiety caused by the rebellion of his two sons, Richard and John, who were aided by King Philip Augustus of France.

4. Henry II. was succeeded on the English throne by his eldest son, the chivalrous Richard the Lion-hearted, who was renowned for his deeds in Palestine as a crusader. On his return home from the Holy Land, in 1192, Richard was imprisoned in Germany, by order of the Emperor of Austria and the Emperor Henry VI. of Germany, in revenge for an insult to the German flag in Palestine and the capture of Acre. The English people only obtained Richard's release by paying a ransom of a million marks. King Richard the Lion-hearted, was killed in 1199, while besieging a castle in Normandy.

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throne of England by his dissolute brother, John, surnamed "Lackland," because he lost Normandy and the other territories which the English monarchs had possessed in France, to the French king, Philip Augustus, after a long contest.

6. King John quarreled with Pope Innocent III. about the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope laid the English kingdom under an interdict, and afterwards excommunicated King John, and called upon King Philip Augustus of France to invade England, dethrone John, and take possession of his kingdom. In order to release himself from the excommunication, King John was compelled to surrender his crown and kingdom to the Pope, and to acknowledge himself the Pope's vassal, whereupon John received his kingdom back as a papal fief. The king of France was then forbidden to make war on England, which country the Pope now considered as one of the territories of the Church.

7. Disgusted with the dissipation and tyranny of King John, the English barons rose in rebellion against him; and on the 19th of June, 1215, at Runnymede, on the Thames, near Windsor, they compelled the king to sign Magna Charta, or Great Charter of rights and liberties. Among the important articles of this great document were the following: "No delay should take place in doing justice to every one; and no freeman should be taken or imprisoned, dispossessed of his free tenement, outlawed or banished, unless by the legal judgment of his peers." Magna Charta has ever since been considered the foundation of the free constitution of England.

8. Irritated at the English barons, the Pope excommunicated John, and also absolved King John from the oath he had sworn. John collected an army of foreign mercenaries, and made war on his barons, who offered the crown of England to the

King John's
Quarrel with
Pope Inno-
cent III.

Rebellion of
the English
Barons.

Civil War in
England.

French monarch's son, Louis, who immediately landed in England with an army, and prepared to contend with King John for the possession of the English throne; but when John died, in 1216, Louis was suddenly abandoned by the English barons.

9. The dissolute King John was succeeded in the royal dignity by his son, Henry III., who was a weak and profligate prince, and profuse to his favorites, who were generally unworthy persons. King Henry III. was engaged in a continual struggle with the English barons, who were endeavoring to secure their own rights and the liberties of the English people. The whole kingdom was rent by anarchy and civil war. The chief among the rebellious barons was Simon de Montfort, who, disgusted with the vicious conduct and tyranny of the King, called a Parliament, 1258, which deprived Henry III. of his authority; and a council of twenty-four barons was appointed to govern the English kingdom.

Civil War between Henry III. and his Barons.

10. In 1265, Simon de Montfort, who had risen to the dignity of Earl of Leicester, called another Parliament, in which not only the English nobles, but also the cities and boroughs of England were represented. This was the origin of the House of Commons, which, as the popular branch of the English Parliament, has ever been the chief guardian of the rights and liberties of the people of England. An attempt of King Henry III. to recover his lost authority involved him in another civil war with his barons. In the battle of Lewes, in 1264, the king was defeated and made a prisoner by the Earl of Leicester; but Henry afterwards obtained his freedom by the great victory which his son, Prince Edward, gained in the battle of Evesham, in which the Earl of Leicester and his son were slain. The wretched life and miserable reign of Henry III. terminated with his death, in 1272.

Origin of the House of Commons—Civil War—Battles of Lewes and Evesham.

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11: The chivalrous son of Henry III., Edward I., who was at the time in Palestine as a Crusader, became King of England at his father's death; but he did not return to England until two years afterward. King Edward I. had a great hatred for the Jews, and, as soon as he arrived in England, he confiscated the property of Jews, and banished 13,000 of them from his kingdom.

Edward I. in
Palestine—
Banishment
of the Jews
from Eng-
land.

12. Unlike his father, Edward I. was an able monarch. He humbled the English Barons and restored order throughout his kingdom. His mind was occupied with the thought of uniting the whole island of Great Britain under one government.

Conquest of
Wales by
Edward I.

When Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, refused to do the customary homage to the English king, Edward I. marched against him with an army; and Llewellyn was defeated and slain in battle, and the principality of Wales was annexed to the English dominions. (A. D., 1282.) Irritated at the determined resistance of the Welsh, King Edward I. caused Llewellyn's brother, David, and the Welsh bards to be massacred; and then presented his own son, Edward of Caernarvon, to the Welsh people as their prince, since which time the eldest son of the British sovereign has been styled "Prince of Wales."

13. King Edward I. next attempted to subdue Scotland. When King Alexander III. of Scotland died, in 1286, the Scottish crown fell to his granddaughter Margaret, the daughter of the King of Norway, and the niece of the King of England. Edward secured the marriage of the princess, known as the "Maid of Norway," with his son, the Prince of Wales. On her voyage from Norway to Scotland, the princess died; and thus the plan for uniting England and Scotland under one sovereign was, for a time, frustrated. Among the Scottish royal competi-

The Scottish
succession—
The Maid of
Norway.

tors now appeared for the crown of Scotland, the leading ones of whom were John Balliol and Robert Bruce, who consented to let Edward I. decide upon their respective claims. The decision of Edward was in favor of Balliol, with the understanding that he should do homage to the King of England for his crown. (A. D., 1293.)

14. When Edward I. became involved in a war with King Philip the Fair of France, Balliol formed an alliance with the French monarch. The result of this step of the Scotch king was a furious war between England and Scotland.

Edward I. led an army into Scotland, and defeated Balliol in the battle of Dunbar, in 1292. The victorious Edward soon compelled Balliol to surrender his crown, and carried to London the Scotch crown, sceptre, and the sacred chair at Seone, on which the Scottish kings sat when they were crowned. (A. D., 1296.)

15. The Scots revolted on Edward's return to England, and, being led by the gallant patriot, Sir William Wallace, a man of obscure origin, gained a victory over the English at Stirling, and regained their independence. Edward I. again invaded Scotland, and defeated the Scots leader Wallace at Falkirk, in 1298. Wallace was banished to Edward, who carried the

valiant patriot to London, and caused him to be executed. (A. D., 1305.) The Scots again revolted, and were led by Robert Bruce, a grandson of that Robert Bruce who had been a rival candidate with Balliol for the Scotch Crown in 1292. In 1306, Bruce was crowned King of Scotland, at Seone. King Edward I. again marched toward Scotland with a powerful army, but died at Carlisle. (A. D., 1307.) On his death bed he exhorted his son Edward to lead the expedition into Scotland, and not to give up the war until the Scots were entirely subjugated.

16. King Edward I. was succeeded on the throne of England by his son, Edward II., who disobeyed his father's

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dying injunction, and disbanded the army which had been raised for the subjugation of Scotland. For seven years the Scots, under the leadership of their king, Robert Bruce, carried on the war against the English. Finally, in 1314, King Edward II. led an army of 100,000 men into Scotland; and on the 24th of June (1314) he fought with Robert Bruce, who had only 30,000 men, the famous battle of Bannockburn, in which the Scots gained a glorious victory and secured the independence of their country. In 1315, Edward Bruce, Robert's brother, went over into Ireland, and the Irish proclaimed him their king; but he was totally defeated by the English in the battle of Dundalk.

The war with Scotland—Independence of Scotland.

17. Edward II. was a weak and profligate sovereign, and he surrounded himself with the most unworthy favorites, the chief of whom was a Frenchman named Gaveston, who treated the English barons with such insolence that they openly rebelled, took Gaveston prisoner, and put him to death. Gaveston's place in the king's favor was supplied by the dissolute Hugh Spenser, a Welshman, who was as much hated by the English barons as Gaveston had been. The barons, with the Earl of Lancaster at their head, again rebelled against the king, and were joined in their rebellion by the king's wife, Isabella, a daughter of King Philip the Fair of France. Edward II. was dethroned and imprisoned; and in 1327 he was brutally murdered, at the instigation of his queen and her unworthy favorite, Roger Mortimer.

Edward's favorites—Murder of Edward II.

18. The imbecile and dissolute Edward II. was succeeded as King of England by his son, the brave and chivalrous Edward III., who was a very able sovereign. Edward III., upon his accession to the throne, caused Roger Mortimer to be put to death, and his mother, Isabella, to be imprisoned, on account of her conduct toward his father.

War with Scotland—Battle of Halidon Hill—Flight of David Bruce.

The attempt of King Edward III. to dethrone David Bruce, the reigning King of Scotland, led to a war between England and Scotland. Edward invaded Scotland, and gained a victory at Halidon Hill, which placed Scotland at the mercy of the English monarch, King David Bruce being obliged to seek refuge in France.

19. By the death of King Charles the Fair of France, the last of the direct line of the House of Capet, in 1328,

Invasion of France by Edward III. the crown of France passed to his cousin, Philip of Valois, the nephew of Philip the Fair. But Edward III. of England claimed

to be the proper heir to the French throne, because his mother, Isabella, was a daughter of Philip the Fair; but by the Salic Law, which has always prevailed in France, females are excluded from the throne, and therefore the French denied the validity of Edward's pretensions. To enforce his claims, the King of England led an army into France, and inflicted upon the French army, far superior to his own in numerical strength, a complete overthrow in the battle of Crecy, fought on the 25th of August, 1346. The French lost over 40,000 men, among whom was the blind old King John of Bohemia. King Edward and his son Edward, the Black Prince, so called from the color of his armor, greatly distinguished themselves in the battle of Crecy for their bravery. In the battle of Crecy, cannon, but of a rude construction, were first used, the English having several pieces.

20. After his great victory at Crecy, Edward III. laid siege to Calais, the key to France. The city was stubbornly defended by the French for nearly a

Siege and Capture of Calais by Edward III.

year, when, reduced by famine, Calais was obliged to surrender. It is said that the English king agreed to spare the inhabitants of Calais, whose long resistance exasperated him, if six of the leading citizens should be sent to him, with ropes about their necks, ready for hanging. The unfortunate

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inhabitants gave way to despair at these hard conditions; but Eustace St. Pierre, a wealthy merchant of Calais, offered himself as one of the victims. Inspired by his noble example, five others followed him. The entreaties of the English nobles, of Edward's queen, Philippa, and of his heroic son, Edward the Black Prince, finally prevailed over the king's obstinate temper and saved the lives of the six noble-hearted citizens. This story is very generally doubted. After the surrender of Calais, Edward III. expelled its French inhabitants, and peopled the city with English; and for two centuries that important town remained in the possession of the English.

21. While the King of England was thus employed in France, the Scots had again raised David Bruce to the throne of their country. Upon his restoration to the Scotch throne, David Bruce invaded Scotch Invasion of England. England; but in the battle of Nevil's Cross, near Durham, fought on the 10th of October, 1346, the King of the Scots was defeated and made a prisoner by Philippa, the wife of Edward III.

22. After a truce of several years, King Edward III. again resolved to attack France; and for this purpose he sent the Black Prince with an army to Invasion of France by the Black Prince. Guienne, one of the Western provinces of France. The Black Prince advanced into the heart of France with only 12,000 men; but at Poitiers he found himself confronted by a French army of 60,000 men, under King John the Good, the successor of Philip of Valois on the throne of France. Desiring to retreat, the Black Prince offered to restore all his conquests in France and make peace; but the French king rejecting all terms but unconditional submission on the part of the invaders, a battle ensued, which, owing to the bravery and skill of the Black Prince, ended in the total defeat of the French, King John himself being taken prisoner. This memorable conflict, known as the battle of Poitiers, occurred on the 17th of September, 1346.

23. Edward the Black Prince took King John of France a prisoner to London. Both the Black Prince and his father treated the captive monarch with the greatest generosity; and during the whole period of his captivity in England, the French King was treated more as a guest than as a captive. The English now had possession of the whole West of France, and the Black Prince and his wife, "the Fair Maid of Kent," established their court at Bordeaux.

24. Edward III. now had two kings in his possession. The King of the Scots was soon ransomed by his subjects.

In 1360, a treaty of peace was made between France and England, by which King John was to be released on the payment of a heavy ransom. One of the hostages delivered to the English king having escaped, the French monarch voluntarily returned to captivity in London, where he died in 1364. The war between England and France was renewed in 1368. Edward the Black Prince, who had been highly esteemed for his generosity and moderation, died in 1376; and his father's death occurred the following year.

25. On the death of King Edward III., in 1377, the son of the Black Prince ascended the throne of England,

at the age of eleven years, with the title of Richard II. The lower orders of the English

**Wat Tyler's
Insurrection.**

people were discontented with the condition of serfdom in which they were kept, and with the oppression which they suffered from the privileged classes; and in 1381, a dangerous insurrection of the lower classes was occasioned by the indignity which the daughter of Wat Tyler, a blacksmith at Deptford, in Essex, suffered at the hands of a brutal tax-gatherer. Enraged at the conduct of the tax-gatherers, the blacksmith killed the tax-officer with his hammer, and rousing the people to insurrection, placed himself at their head as leader. The insurgents, 100,000 in number,

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after assembling at Blackheath, under the leadership of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, broke into London, burned the palaces and mansions of the nobles, plundered the warehouses, and killed the Chancellor and the Archbishop of Canterbury. King Richard II. went to meet the insurgents, accompanied by a few attendants. Wat Tyler treated the king with such insolence that William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, struck him to the ground, whereupon the blacksmith was slain by others of the king's retinue. The enraged insurgents threatened to overwhelm the king's party, but this was averted by the presence of mind of Richard II., who kindly addressed the malcontents, and induced them to return to their homes by promising them a release from some of the degrading conditions of serfdom. As soon as order was restored, the government broke its plighted faith by revoking the certificates of freedom which had been granted to the peasants. The consequence of this action was that Richard II. lost the favor of the lower orders.

26. The prodigality and dissipation of Richard II., and his profusion to his unworthy favorites, such as Michael de la Pole, induced the king's uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, to compel Richard to resign his A regency of nobles. authority of a regency of nobles. After several years, the king recovered his lost power, and caused his uncle to be put to death.

27. Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, openly charged Richard II. with the murder of the Duke of Gloucester. The king's cousin, Henry of Lancaster, sur- Banishment of Henry of Lancaster. named Bolingbroke, defended Richard against the charge. At length a personal combat was about to take place between Bolingbroke and Mowbray, but the king banished the two noblemen from the kingdom. At last, in the year 1399, when the king seized on the estates of Henry of Lancaster, that nobleman returned to England, and was soon at the head of an army of 60,000

mén. Henry dethroned his cousin, and caused himself to be crowned King of England, with the title of Henry IV. The fallen Richard ended his life in prison.

CHAPTER LXX.

ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

1. HENRY IV., surnamed Bolingbroke, was the first English king in the Lancaster branch of the Plantagenet dynasty. He had no legal right to the crown, for the true heir was Edmund Mortimer. No sooner had Henry IV. ascended the throne than a dangerous conspiracy was formed against him. At length, the Earl of Northumberland, and his brother, the Earl of Westmoreland, the two richest noblemen in England, and who had been chiefly instrumental in raising Henry to the throne, raised the standard of rebellion against the king. These nobles had gained a victory at Homildon Hill, over the Scotch Earl Douglas, whom they took prisoner; and an order from King Henry forbidding them to admit any of their prisoners to ransom, provoked their resentment. Henry took the field against the rebellious barons, and defeated them in the great battle of Shrewsbury, on the 21st of July, 1403. Henry Percy, surnamed "Hotspur," the son of the Earl of Northumberland, was killed in the battle. This rebellion was now quelled, but another immediately broke out, headed by Scrope, Archbishop of York, and Thomas Mowbray, Earl-Marshal of England. This rebellion was also suppressed, and Scrope was beheaded. King Henry IV. had more difficulty in subduing the Welsh, who, under the leadership of the valiant Owen Glendower, whom they proclaimed Prince of Wales, fought seven years for their independence.

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2. One of the most cruel acts of King Henry VI. was the seizure of the young prince James, son of King Robert III. of Scotland. This prince had been sent ^{Captivity of,} by his father to be educated in France; but ^{the young Prince of Scotland.} he was seized on his voyage from Scotland to France, by order of the English monarch, who kept the prince a prisoner for eighteen years, when he was finally ransomed by the Scotch people, and became King James I. of Scotland.

3. King Henry IV. died of a broken heart, in 1413, whereupon his son, Henry V., became King of England. Henry V. had been very wicked in his youth, associating with persons of the greatest vices, ^{Reformation} and on one occasion he was committed to ^{in the character of} prison by Chief-Justice Gascoigne, for striking ^{Henry V.} the judge, who had sentenced one of the young prince's dissolute companions to prison for highway robbery; but when Henry ascended the throne, he immediately reformed, and became one of the most virtuous persons of his time. Henry V. was a great persecutor of the Lollards, as the followers of John Wickliffe, sometimes called "The Morning Star of the Reformation." Lord Cobham, and many others of the most prominent Lollards, were condemned and executed.

4. As France was at this time ^{by internal dissensions,} King Henry V. considered this a good opportunity to invade that kingdom and claim its crown. ^{Invasion of France by Henry V.} In 1415, Henry landed on the Northern coast of France with 30,000 men, and took Harfleur; and, after his army had been reduced by sickness to 11,000 men, he defeated the French army, of 50,000 men, in the famous battle of Azincourt, on the 24th of October, 1415, on which occasion 10,000 Frenchmen were killed, and 14,000 were made prisoners, while the English lost only forty men. Henry V. again invaded France in 1417,

and in 1422, he concluded with the French king, Charles VI., the Treaty of Troyes, by which the English king was declared to be the successor to the crown of France.

5. King Henry V. died in 1422, and was succeeded on the English throne by his son, Henry VI., who was then only nine months old. King Charles VI. of

**Coronation
of Henry VI.
at Paris.**

France died the same year, and the infant Henry VI. was crowned in Paris, King of England and France. Charles's son, the Dauphin, afterward King Charles VII., resolved to expel the English from France, and secure the French crown, which of right belonged to him.

6. The English were now in possession of almost the whole of France. Town after town submitted to them, until Orleans was the only place that remained

**Joan of Arc,
the Maid of
Orleans.**

in the possession of the French, and even that city was besieged by the English. At length, the famous Joan of Arc, a poor peasant girl of Dom Remy in Lorraine, declared that she had received a mission from Heaven to drive the English invaders from the soil of France and restore her country's independence. The Dauphin, having faith in the truth of her mission, gave her command of the army defending Orleans; and the English, excited by superstitious fears, soon relinquished the siege of Orleans, A. D., 1429. The French next recovered Rheims from the English; and the Dauphin was crowned in that city as King of France, with the title of Charles VII. Joan's family was ennobled, and she was thereafter called the "Maid of Orleans." The French officers finally became jealous of the fame of the heroine, and allowed her to be taken prisoner by the Duke of Burgundy, who sold her to the Duke of Bedford, the English regent in France. The Duke of Bedford stained his hitherto irreproachable character by causing the valiant Joan of Arc to be burned alive as a sorceress, in the market-place of Rouen, A. D., 1431. Although the French

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were no longer led by the Maid of Orleans, still they were victorious; and finally, in 1453, the English were completely driven out of France, Calais only remaining in their possession, and Charles VII. was left in full possession of his kingdom.

7. England was now distracted by domestic troubles. Henry VI. was a weak and idiotic prince, and unfit for the difficult station of king. In 1455, an insurrection of the lower classes broke out in Kent, Jack Cade's Insurrection. the leader of which was Jack Cade. London was taken possession of by the insurgents, but the rebellion was soon suppressed, and Jack Cade was afterwards killed in a garden in Sussex.

8. The reigning family of England had long been unpopular with the English people, on account of the imbecility of the king and the loss of the English conquests in France. The Duke of York claims the Crown. This afforded Richard, Duke of York, a good opportunity to claim the crown of England, which had been unlawfully wrested from his ancestors by Henry of Lancaster in 1399. The Duke of York accordingly laid claim to the English crown, for the possession of which he began a war against King Henry VI., in 1455. On the 3d of May of that year, was fought the first battle of St. Albans, in which the king was defeated and taken prisoner by the Duke of York. The civil war which now commenced in England lasted thirty years, and is called "The Wars of the Roses," the badge of the adherents of the House of York being a white rose, and that of the partisans of the House of Lancaster a red rose. In this long civil war eighty princes of the blood-royal perished, and the ancient nobility of England was nearly annihilated.

9. The greatest general in the Wars of the Roses was the Duke of York's wife's brother, Nevil, Earl of Warwick, who was the richest nobleman in England, The Earl of Warwick. and who maintained on his different estates

about 30,000 persons. In the battle of Northampton, in 1460, Henry VI. was defeated and taken prisoner by the Earl of Warwick. Duke Richard of York might now have obtained the royal crown without any difficulty, had not many of the English nobility and King Henry's queen, Margaret of Anjou, a woman of masculine qualities, risen in support of the reigning sovereign; but the Parliament declared the Duke of York to be the lawful successor of Henry VI., thus excluding Prince Edward, the son of Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou, from the English throne. In 1460, Margaret defeated the Yorkists in the battle of Wakefield, in which Duke Richard of York himself was slain. The sanguinary Margaret caused the fallen Duke's head to be cut off and placed upon a pole upon the gates of York with a paper crown, in derision of his claim. Shortly afterward, Margaret defeated the Earl of Warwick in the second battle of St. Albans, and regained possession of the king's person; but Edward, son of the late unfortunate Duke of York, uniting his forces with those of the Earl of Warwick, compelled Margaret to retreat, and entered London; whereupon the helpless Henry VI. was dethroned, through the agency of the Earl of Warwick, who caused the young Duke of York to be proclaimed King of England, with the title of Edward IV.

CHAPTER LXXI.

ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF YORK.

1. EDWARD IV. was the first English king of the York branch of the Plantagenet dynasty. The dethronement of Henry VI. did not put an end to the Wars of the Roses; and in 1461, was fought the sanguinary battle of Towton, in which Margaret was defeated by King Edward IV. and the Earl of Warwick, and in which 36,000 Lancastrians were slain. Margaret and her husband fled to Scotland, but after-

*Continuation
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wards returned; and, in 1464, Margaret was again defeated, after which she found refuge in France, and the poor, helpless Henry fell into the hands of Edward IV., who lodged him in the Tower of London.

2. Although the Earl of Warwick had been chiefly instrumental in elevating Edward IV. to the throne of England, that powerful nobleman soon became the king's most inveterate enemy. The ^{Marriage of Edward IV.} Earl of Warwick desired Edward IV. to marry some foreign princess, and was so offended when the king married Lady Elizabeth Grey, an English lady, that he joined the Lancastrians and formed an alliance with Margaret; and Edward was obliged to flee from the kingdom, whereupon the Earl of Warwick dragged poor Henry from his prison, and restored him to the throne. As the Earl of Warwick was so powerful in raising princes to the throne and deposing them again, he was called "the King-maker."

3. Edward IV. soon returned to England, and, deposing Henry VI., regained possession of the royal throne. Edward next marched against the Earl of ^{Battle of Barnet and death of Warwick.} Warwick, who had taken a position at Barnet, near London. The treachery of the King-maker's nephew, the Duke of Clarence, who deserted with a part of the Lancastrian army to his brother, King Edward IV., brought about the victory of the Yorkists in the battle of Barnet, in which the Earl of Warwick was slain, while bravely fighting for the Lancastrians. (A. D., 1471.) A few weeks later the cause of Margaret was ruined, and she and her son Edward were taken prisoners by Edward IV., in the decisive battle of Tewkesbury. Prince Edward was murdered by the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester, the brothers of King Edward IV.; and a few days afterward Henry VI. was found dead in the Tower, supposed to have been murdered by the Duke of Gloucester. Margaret was imprisoned in the Tower for

five years, after which she was ransomed by the King of France, in which country she then found refuge and died in 1480.

4. King Edward was now securely on the throne of England. He was a cruel, tyrannical, and profligate monarch. His brother, George, Duke of Clarence, having incurred the displeasure of the king, was put to death at the instigation of his other brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester. In 1480, Edward IV. invaded France with a powerful army, but was bribed to return to England by the crafty Louis XI., King of France, who thinking of the days of Crecy, Poitiers, and Azincourt, trembled at the very thought of an English army in France. Edward IV., was outwitted in another treaty with the artful Louis XI.; and the vexation which the circumstance caused the English king, hastened him to his grave. He died in the year 1483, leaving the crown of England to his eldest son, Edward V.

5. Edward V. was only thirteen years old when he ascended the throne of England. The young king's wicked uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who had secured for himself the appointment of Protector during the minority of Edward V., aspired to the English crown. After causing the young king's maternal relatives, Lords Rivers and Grey, to be beheaded in prison, the Duke of Gloucester summoned a council, in the presence of which he caused Lord Hastings, another of the young king's relatives, to be beheaded. The wicked Duke of Gloucester then caused himself to be proclaimed King of England, with the title of Richard III.; and at his instigation, Edward V. and his brother, the young Duke of York, were smothered to death in the Tower.

6. The usurping Richard III. was not permitted to enjoy quietly the fruits of his crimes; and his reign was

soon disturbed by a plot against his power, headed by the Duke of Buckingham, who had largely contributed to Richard's elevation to the throne; but the conspiracy was frustrated, and the Duke of Buckingham was executed. There was still remaining one heir of the House of Lancaster. This was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, whom Richard III. several times attempted to get into his power, but failed, and who saved himself by fleeing to France.

7. In 1485, the Earl of Richmond landed on the Southern coast of England, with a small army, composed of English exiles and some French troops, and marched northward to the very centre of England, his army continually increasing in numerical strength. On the 14th of August, 1485, was fought the celebrated battle of Bosworth Field, which, through the defection of Lord Stanley, who deserted to the Earl of Richmond with a part of the king's army, ended in the total overthrow of Richard III. In the courage of despair, Richard plunged into the thickest of the fight, crying "Treason! treason!" and fell covered with wounds and expired. The royal crown was taken from the head of the fallen Richard, and placed on the head of the Earl of Richmond, who was crowned by Sir William Stanley, on the battle-field, and hailed as King of England, with the title of Henry VII. Thus ended the Plantagenet dynasty.

CHAPTER LXXII.

ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

1. HENRY VII., the first English king of the House of Tudor, married the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., and heiress of the House of York,—thus uniting the claims of the House of York and Lancaster, and putting an end to the civil wars, which for thirty years had deluged England with the

*Marriage of
King Henry
VII.*

blood of her own people. Henry VII. was an unambitious monarch, preferring peace to war, and consequently he did not involve his kingdom in foreign wars; but he was exceedingly avaricious, and accumulated an enormous amount of money.

2. In the early part of the reign of Henry VII., Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker at Oxford, attempted to personate the young Earl of Warwick, nephew of Edward IV., and made pretensions to the English crown; but the impostor was defeated, taken prisoner, and made a menial in the king's household. (A. D., 1487.) Several years afterward, Perkin Warbeck, the son of a Flemish butcher, attempted to counterfeit the person of the young Duke of York, one of Edward IV.'s sons, who was reported to be still alive, and also raised claims to the English throne; but being obliged to surrender himself to the king, this second impostor was imprisoned in the Tower, and having afterward attempted to escape, he was hanged at Tyburn. (A. D., 1490.)

3. King Henry VII. was noted for his unbounded avarice. By means of the most arbitrary and vexatious laws, for the violation of which heavy fines were exacted, and by taxes, confiscation of the property of those who had engaged in various conspiracies against the king, and benevolences, or voluntary contributions to the king's service, this royal miser accumulated immense wealth in money, plate, and jewels.

4. The reign of Henry VII. was an important era in English history; although there arose one instrument of oppression,—namely, the arbitrary court of the Star Chamber, in which the king presided as judge. Feudalism, which came into England with the Norman Conquest, disappeared with the extinction of the Plantagenet dynasty. The power of the English aristocracy was rapidly waning, while the royal authority

was fast approaching absolutism, and the institutions or the Middle Ages were giving place to the enlightened forms and usages. King Henry VI, after a peaceful reign of twenty-four years, succeeded on the English throne by his son, Henry VII.

CHAPTER LXXIII.

THE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS.

1. AFTER the bold sea-expeditions of the Scandinavians, or Normans and Danes, had ceased, several of the Scandinavian princes founded kingdoms,—as Harold Fairhair in Norway, the Ynglings in Sweden and Gorm the Old in Denmark;—but some of the Scandinavian chiefs would not submit to the authority of their kings, and the wars that arose in consequence continued for several centuries, and retarded the introduction of Christianity into the Scandinavian kingdoms.

2. Ansgar, “the Apostle of the North,” introduced the Gospel into Scandinavia in the ninth century; and the kings, Harold Blutooth of Denmark and Olaf Skotkonung of Sweden, embraced Christianity, but their subjects still held fast to the pagan worship of Odin. In Denmark, Harold’s grandson, Canute the Great, conqueror of England, and in Norway, Olaf the Saint, succeeded in Christianizing their subjects in the eleventh century; and in Sweden, Eric the Pious established the religion of the Cross in the twelfth century. The Benedictine monks did much toward the civilization of the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

3. In the first part of the thirteenth century, Denmark, with which Norway was then united, became a powerful kingdom, under Waldemar the Conqueror, who subdued the Germanic and Slavonic countries on the south and east sides of the Baltic sea,—namely, Holstein, Lauenburg, Mecklenburg,

Founding of the Kingdoms of Norway, Sweden and Denmark.

Introduction of Christianity into the Scandinavian Kingdoms.

Denmark under Waldemar the Conqueror.



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Pomerania, Prussia, Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia;— but when Waldemar fell a prisoner into the hands of Count Henry of Schwerin, his vassals rose in rebellion, and his vast empire fell to pieces; the conquered German states returning to the government of their emperor. In 1397, Queen Margareta of Denmark, the “Semiramis of the North,” united the three Scandinavian kingdoms under one sceptre by the celebrated Union of Calmar. —

4. The present House of Oldenburg ascended the throne of Denmark in 1448, in the person of Christian I. **Christian I.** The cruel massacre of ninety-four Swedish nobles at Stockholm, in 1520, by order of the **Christian II. of Denmark.** hard-hearted and tyrannical King Christian II. of Denmark, produced a revolt of the Swedes, who, under the leadership of the valiant Gustavus Vasa, threw off the oppressive yoke of the Danish king.

CHAPTER LXXIV.

SLAVONIC STATES.—KINGDOM OF POLAND.

1. THE lands of the Vistula and the Oder were inhabited by tribes of the Slavonic race, known as Poles, or **The Poles or Slavonians of the Plain.** In the year 840, A. D., a simple peasant, named Piast, was chosen duke of the Polish territories. About the middle of the tenth century, the Poles embraced Christianity, after the conversion of their duke, Micislaus, by German missionaries.

2. The numerous Polish principalities were first united into one kingdom under Boleslaus I., who was crowned King of Poland, in 1025; but the Polish kingdom was subsequently subdivided among the family of the Piasts; and Poland was claimed as a fief of the German Empire, until during the reign of the Emperor Frederic II. of Germany, in the

Establishment of the Kingdom of Poland by Boleslaus I.

first half of the thirteenth century, when it secured its complete national independence.

3. Poland first rose to consideration in the fourteenth century, when King Vladislaus IV. united Great Poland with little Poland, and was crowned in Cracow. The son and successor of Vladislaus IV., Casimir the Great, who obtained the Polish crown in 1333, added Galicia and Red Russia to the Polish dominions, founded the University of Cracow, and showed himself to be a sagacious legislator; but his efforts to diminish the power of the Polish nobility, and to establish a powerful citizen and burgher class, proved futile, and the Polish peasants, or serfs, continued to live in the most abject servitude. King Casimir the Great died in 1370; and, as he was the last of the male line of Piast, the Polish nobles, or voiwodes, bestowed the crown of Poland on King Louis the Great of Hungary, who proved to be a wise and able monarch.

4. After the death of Louis the Great, in 1385, the crown of Poland fell to his son-in-law, Jagello, Grand Duke of Lithuania, who thus became the founder of the dynasty of the Jagellos, which occupied the Polish throne for nearly two centuries. With the accession of Jagello, Lithuania was united with Poland. Casimir IV., who reigned from 1447 to 1492, subdued the Teutonic Knights, who had for a long time warred against the Poles; but he was obliged to make many concessions to the voiwodes, thus diminishing the royal power. It was the Polish aristocracy, who alone were represented in the Polish Diet, who had a voice in legislation, the raising of taxes, and the levying of troops. The nobles, or voiwodes, only were regarded as citizens in Poland.

5. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the kingdom of Poland was one of the most powerful and exten-

Height of Poland's power and greatness.

sive monarchies in Europe, stretching from the Baltic to the Euxine, or Black Sea, along the whole frontier of European civilization, thus forming an effectual barrier to Germany and the states of Western Europe against barbarian invasion. Sigismund I. and Sigismund II. were great monarchs. Under the former, Lithuania was finally united to Poland; and the Dukedom of Prussia was placed under the feudal supremacy of the Polish kingdom, during the reign of the latter.

6. The family of the Jagellos became extinct in 1572, whereupon Poland became an elective monarchy, the king being thenceforth chosen by the Polish Diet; and thereafter Poland was not called a kingdom, but a republic, though the head of the state was still called a king. The first elective King of Poland was Henry of Valois, afterward King Henry III. of France, who voluntarily resigned his Polish crown after one year's reign. From that period Poland declined. Owing to the weakness of the royal power, domestic dissensions, and frequent contests with Sweden, Russia, and Turkey, Poland gradually decayed, until toward the close of the eighteenth century, when its national existence was extinguished.

Poland, an Elective Monarchy.

CHAPTER LXXV.

THE SLAVONIC STATES.—THE RUSSIAN OR MUSCOVITE EMPIRE.

1. IN the latter half of the ninth century, Ruric, a Scandinavian Varangian chieftain, at the invitation of the people of Novgorod, became prince of the Slavonic tribes to the east of the Baltic sea, who thenceforth were called Russians, because their leader, Ruric, belonged to the Norman

Ruric, and the Grand-Duchy of Great Russia.

family of Russ. Ruric founded the Grand-Duchy of Great Russia, the capital of which he established at Novgorod.

2. Ruric's great-grandson, Vladimir the Great, married a daughter of the Greek Emperor in 988; and Vladimir and his subjects embraced Christianity, and the Greek Christian Church was established in the Russian dominions, which then extended from the Dnieper to the Dwina, and whose capital was then the flourishing city of Kiev.

**Vladimir
the Great.**

3. The successors of Vladimir the Great divided the Russian dominions among different heirs; and the consequences were many desolating wars and the gradual decline of the Russian Empire. The Division of the Russian Dominions. Lithuanians and Poles conquered portions of the Russian territory on the West; while the

Moguls, or Tartars, subdued all the country from the Dnieper to the Vistula; and for nearly two centuries, Russia groaned under the oppression of the Tartar chieftain, the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kaptshak, who exacted a heavy tribute from the Russian princes and their subjects.

4. Ivan the Great, Grand Duke of Moscow, who reigned from 1462 to 1505, freed his country from the despotic yoke of the Golden Horde, and greatly enlarged his dominions by conquests in all directions. He abolished the ruinous system of dividing the Russian territories among successive heirs, and thus raised the Muscovite kingdom to the rank of one of the rising powers of Europe. He invited artisans from the other European countries to Russia, and endeavored in various ways to civilize his barbarous people. He also built the Kremlin, or citadel, for the protection of his capital, Moscow.

**Ivan the
Great, Grand
Duke of
Moscow.**

5. The grandson of Ivan the Great, Ivan the Terrible, who occupied the grand-ducal throne of Moscow, from

**Ivan the
Terrible of
Moscow.**

1533 to 1588, was the first Muscovite prince who styled himself Czar, or Cæsar. The prince conquered the two Tartar kingdoms of Kasan and Astracan, and extended his empire to the Caucasus. He laid the foundation of a standing army by the organization of a body of troops called Strelitzes. During his reign, Siberia was discovered, and its conquest by the Russians begun. Feodor, the son of Ivan the Terrible, was the last of the male line of Ruric.

CHAPTER LXXVI.

TARTARIC STATES.—KINGDOM OF HUNGARY.

1. **The Magyars or Hungarians.** The Tartaric tribe of Magyars, or Hungarians, who had settled in the valleys of the Theiss and the Danube in the beginning of the tenth century, and who made plundering incursions into Germany, were ruled by a number of princes, the chief of whom was duke Arpad, whose descendants subsequently became the only rulers of Hungary. Duke Geisa I, who ruled Hungary in the latter half of the tenth century, received the doctrines of Christianity, and employed German missionaries to teach the gospel of a crucified Saviour to his savage people. At the same time, the Magyars abandoned their nomadic habits, and applied themselves to agriculture.
2. Geisa's son, Stephen the Pious, who assumed the title and dignity of King of Hungary, in the year 1000, A. D., conquered Transylvania, repressed the insolence of the Hungarian nobility, defended the royal power against all encroachments, and reigned with vigor and wisdom. King Stephen founded monasteries and invited Benedictine monks into Hungary. He was the founder of the Political institutions of Hungary, and did much to civilize his barbarous subjects, and to accustom them to the arts of peace; but the

**Founding of
the Kingdom
of Hungary.**

progress of Christianity and civilization in Hungary was retarded by civil wars among the Magyars after Stephen's death.

3. During the reign of Geisa II., in the twelfth century, Flemings from Flanders and Saxons from Germany migrated to and settled in Transylvania, and their descendants still retain the manners and **Geisa II.** customs of their ancestors. The Flemings and Saxons in Transylvania built many towns, and converted a desert land into a blooming region.

4. In the year 1234. A. D., the Magyar nobles, or magnates, compelled their king, Andrew II., to grant a charter called the "Golden Privilege," which con- **King Andrew II., and the "Golden Privilege."** ceded great privileges to the nobility and the clergy, and was the foundation of the free constitution of Hungary. Any encroachment by the king on the rights secured to the magnates by the Golden Privilege, justified the Hungarian nobles in armed rebellion against their sovereign. The magnates in Hungary, as the voiwodes in Poland, became the actual ruling class, while the Hungarian peasants, or serfs, pined in a condition little better than abject slavery.

5. Andrew III. was the last king of the race of Arpad and at his death, in 1241, Hungary became an elective kingdom with Louis the Great, of the Anjou- **Andrew III. and Louis the Great.** Neapolitan dynasty, as the first elective king. Under Louis the Great, Hungary attained its highest point of power and prosperity. Louis received the crown of Poland in 1370, extended the Hungarian kingdom to the Lower Danube, and made Venice tributary. He also protected the peasant class of Hungary from the tyranny of the magnates, improved the administration of justice, and established schools of education throughout the Hungarian kingdom. He also conducted many wars in Italy.

6. After the death of Louis the Great, in 1384, dis-

putes and contests for the Hungarian crown arose, which for many years distracted the Hungarian kingdom, and tranquillity was only restored when the Emperor Sigismund of Germany, King of Hungary, united Hungary with his own possessions. The valiant John Hunniyades of Transylvania saved Hungary from the dominion of the Ottoman Turks by his great victory at Belgrade.

7. In gratitude to the memory of John Hunniyades, the Hungarian Diet bestowed the crown of Hungary on his son, Matthias Corvinus Hunniyades, who proved to be one of the greatest and best of Hungarian sovereigns. He successfully defended his kingdom against the Ottoman Turks, and extended its frontiers on the side of Austria and Germany. He established a university and a library at Buda, and invited learned men, artists, mechanics, and agriculturists into Hungary, to advance the civilization of his subjects.

8. After the death of King Matthias, in 1490, Hungary rapidly declined. The kingdom was invaded by the Ottoman Turks, and the Royal power was diminished by the nobility, who made the raising of taxes, the declaring of war and the making of peace, privileges of the Hungarian Diet. Finally the nobles, or magnates, usurped the whole royal authority. When King Louis II., of Hungary was defeated and killed by the Turks in the battle of Mohacz, in 1536, a dispute for the Hungarian crown arose, which was finally settled by leaving Transylvania and East Hungary in the possession of the mighty Turkish Sultan, Solymán the Magnificent, while West Hungary reverted to the Sovereignty of the Archduke Ferdinand I., of Austria. Long and bloody wars between the Austrians and the Turks resulted in favor of the House of Hapsburg; and ever since that period, the sovereign prince of Austria has borne the title and dignity of King of Hungary.

CHAPTER LXXVII.

TARTARTIC STATES.—THE MOGUL AND OTTOMAN EMPIRES.

1. IN the early part of the thirteenth century, A. D. 1227, Zingis-Khan, prince of a warlike nomadic Tartar tribe called Moguls, set out on his career of conquest; first subduing China, after which he marched toward the West with 700,000 warriors, conquering Hindoostan, Persia, and the Corasmin Empire to the east of the Caspian Sea. The cities of Bokhara and Samarcand were reduced to ashes. After the death of Zingis-Khan, his successors carried out his plans of conquest, subduing Russia, Poland, and Hungary, and burning the cities of Kiev, Moscow, and Cracow; after which they crossed the Oder and invaded Silesia, laid its capital, Breslau, in ashes, and defeated and killed Duke Henry of Lower Silesia, in a terrible battle near Liegnitz. The Occidental nations were greatly alarmed, but the conquering Oriental hordes soon turned to the South and overthrew the Caliphate of Bagdad. The last Caliph and 200,000 Mussulmen were slain. Syria was conquered, and its great cities, Aleppo and Damascus, were destroyed. This vast and unwieldly Mogul Empire soon fell to pieces.

2. Near the close of the thirteenth century, the Ottoman Turks, a fierce Tartar tribe professing the doctrines of the Koran, left their seats east of the Caspian sea, and turning to the West, and led by Othman, conquered Asia Minor. The succeeding Ottoman princes formed the Christians whom they took prisoners into a body of infantry called Janisaries. The great Sultan, Amurath I., after fully subduing Asia Minor, crossed the Hellespont, or Dardanelles, into Europe, conquered Thrace and Macedon, and made Adrianople the capital of the rising Ottoman Empire. In 1390, Amurath I. defeated an army of 500,000 Christians at Cassavo, in Servia, but the warrior Sultan was slain in the battle. Amurath's successor, Bajazet, "the Light

ning," as he was called on account of his successes, subdued Thessaly and Epirus, and defeated a Christian army of 100,000 men, in the bloody battle of Nicopolis; and he had already laid siege to Constantinople, when he was overthrown by a greater conqueror than himself.

3. In the latter part of the fourteenth century (A. D. 1370), Timour the Lame, or Tamerlane, a descendant of the great Zingis-Khan, set about the reëstablishment of the great Mogul empire; and after leaving his capital, Samarcand, to conquer every nation from Orient to Occident, he subdued India and Persia, destroyed the cities of Bagdad and Damascus, and desolated Asia Minor, filling the whole land with corpses, and reducing many flourishing cities to ashes. Sultan Bajazet now relinquished the siege of Constantinople, and marched against Tamerlane, but the Sultan was defeated and taken prisoner by the Mogul conqueror, in the great battle of Angora, in Asia Minor, in 1402, and died of grief the following year. The Mogul empire of Tamerlane was soon broken into fragments.

4. The Ottoman or Turkish Empire soon recovered from the blow inflicted upon it by Tamerlane, under Sultan Amurath II., Bajazet's grandson, who left nothing to the Greek Emperor but his capital, Constantinople; but the rapid conquests of the Turks now alarmed Christian Europe, and a powerful Christian army marched to the assistance of the Eastern Emperor; but this army was disastrously defeated by the infidels, in the bloody battle of Varna, in 1444.

5. Sultan Amurath II. died in 1451, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his hard-hearted son, Mohammed II., who, with an army of 400,000 men, besieged Constantinople, and finally took that celebrated city by storm, on the 29th of May, 1453. The last Byzantine or Greek

The Mogul
Empire of
Timour or
Tamerlane.

Recovery of
the Ottoman
Empire
under
Amurath II.

Conquest of
Constantinople
by
Mohammed
II.

1453

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Emperor, Constantine Palæologus, was slain while gallantly defending his capital. The inhabitants of the fallen city were made slaves, and Constantinople became the capital of the Ottoman Empire; Thus ended the Eastern Empire of the Romans; the last remnants of Roman and Greek civilization in the East were now extinguished; the Greek Christian church of St. Sophia became a Mohammedan mosque; the crescent supplanted the cross in the city of Constantine; and an infidel barbarian monarch occupied the throne of the first Christian Roman Emperor.

6. After the fall of Constantinople and the subversion of the Byzantine Empire, the Ottoman Turks continued to extend their conquests in Europe. The ^{Turkish conquest of} Morea, or Peloponesus, was next subdued; but Hungary's independence was preserved by the great victory of the valiant Transylvanian prince, John Hunniyades, at Belgrade. In the year 1517, the Turkish Empire was further enlarged by the conquest of Egypt, by Sultan Selim I., who caused a sanguinary massacre of the Mamelukes, who had ruled Egypt since 1270.

7. The Ottoman Empire attained its highest pinnacle of power and glory during the reign of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who ascended the Turkish ^{Great power and extent of the Ottoman} throne in 1520; and for more than a century thereafter the Ottoman arms maintained their ^{Empire.} ascendancy over those of Christendom. Solyman the Magnificent wrested the island of Rhodes from the Knights of St. John. He also invaded Hungary, and made hill and dale reverberate with the bugle-blast of victory. Solyman's great victory in the battle of Mohacz, in 1526, gave him possession of the Eastern half of Hungary; and in 1529 he appeared before Vienna, and made the Hapsburgs tremble in their own capital. The Ottoman Empire now stretched from Germany to Persia, and in Africa it included Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers. Solyman the

Magnificent died in 1566, while besieging Szigeth, in Hungary.

8. Sultan Selim II., the successor of Solymán the Magnificent, was also a noted monarch; and during his reign the Turks ruled the Mediterranean sea, but their navy was defeated in the battle of Lepanto, in 1571, by the united fleets of Spain and Venice. The decay of military virtue among the Turks, as well as domestic rebellions and exhaustive struggles with Persia, Russia, Poland, Germany and Venice, led to the rapid decline of the Ottoman Empire, before the end of the seventeenth century.

Sultan Selim II. Turkey's decay.

CHAPTER LXXVIII.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES, 1540 to 1535.

IMPORTANT INVENTIONS.—THE SEA-PASSAGE TO INDIA.—THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

1. MANY useful inventions, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, aided vastly in the return of European civilization, at the close of the fifteenth century. The most important of these inventions was that of the art of printing, about the year 1440, A. D., by John Guttenberg, of Mayence, in Germany, and his assistants, Faust and Schoeffer. The result of this useful invention was a great increase in the number of books, which now for the first time were attainable by all classes of society.

2. The invention of gunpowder, by the German monk, Berthold Schwartz, prepared the way for the downfall of Chivalry, by the substitution of fire-arms for the old weapons of warfare. The invention of the Mariner's Compass by the Italian, Flavio Gioja, gave a fresh impulse to navigation, and very soon the gallant Portuguese navigators ventured out

Invention of Gunpowder and the Mariner's Compass.

farther and farther from the coast than had been hitherto attempted by any mariner.

3. The Portuguese now became renowned for their commercial enterprise, and their zeal for navigation and discovery. The Madeira, the Azores, and the Portuguese Cape de Verd Islands were discovered and Discoveries taken possession of by the Portuguese.

4. In 1486, Bartholomew Diaz, a daring Portuguese navigator, discovered the southern point of Africa, which was named the "Cape of Storms;" but the name Discovery of this headland was soon changed to that of the Cape of Good Hope. the "Cape of Good Hope," because there was now good hope that a sea-passage from Europe to India could easily be found.

5. In 1497, during the reign of King Emmanuel the the Great of Portugal, Vasco de Gama, another bold Portuguese navigator, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to India, thus discovering the sea-passage to the East Indies. Vasco de Gama, landed at Calicut, on the western coast of Hindoostan, where was planted a Portuguese colony,—the first European settlement in the East Indies.

Vasco de
Gama's Voy-
age to India
and Found-
ing of Cali-
cut.

6. In the year 1500, A. D., the Portuguese navigator, Cabral, while on his voyage to India, discovered the coast of Brazil, in South America, and took possession of that extensive region in the name of his sovereign, the King of Portugal. The Portuguese Empire in India was extended by the gallant Almeida, who was killed by the savage Hottentots of Southern Africa, while on his return to Portugal. Albuquerque, Almeida's successor as viceroy of the Portuguese possessions in Southern Asia, conquered the cities of Ormuz and Goa, the latter of which he made the capital of the Portuguese Empire in the East. The illustrious Albuquerque finally died of grief at the ungrateful treatment which he received from his master, King Emmanuel of Portugal.

Cabral, Al-
meida, and
Albuquerque.

A few years later, the Portuguese established settlements on the Island of Ceylon, and conquered the Molucca or Spice Islands. At this period, Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, was the centre of the world's commerce.

7. Among others who were attracted to Lisbon was Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor. Columbus believed the earth to be round, and that India could be reached sooner by sailing westward than by making the long voyage around Africa.

He vainly endeavored to procure aid, first from his native city, Genoa, and afterwards from the kings of Portugal and England. After waiting for some time, Columbus finally obtained assistance from that noble-hearted queen, Isabella of Castile, who fitted out several vessels for him, and appointed him admiral and viceroy of all the lands that he might discover.

8. On the 3d of August, 1492, Christopher Columbus, with three Spanish vessels, left the harbor of Palos, in south-western Spain; and after a voyage of seventy days he discovered, on the 12th of October (1492), Guanahani, or Cat Island, which he named San Salvador, or Holy Saviour, and of which he took possession in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella, the joint sovereigns of Spain. Columbus found the inhabitants of the island to be of a copper color and of savage manners; and, supposing that he had only discovered the coast of India, he called the people Indians,—a name which has since been very inappropriately applied to all the aboriginal inhabitants of the Western Continent. When Columbus returned to Spain he was treated with great honors by the ruling sovereigns of that country.

9. Columbus made three other voyages across the stormy Atlantic. In 1493, he discovered the large and important island of St. Domingo, or Hayti, and founded the town of St. Domingo,—the first European settlement in the New World. Sev-

**Christopher
Columbus—
Discovery of
America.**

**The Great
Discovery of
Columbus.**

**The other
Voyages of
Columbus.**

eral other large islands were discovered, and Columbus named the whole group "West Indies." On his third voyage, in 1498, Columbus discovered the great continent of South America, at the mouth of the great river Orinoco. On his fourth and last voyage, during which he discovered Central America (A. D., 1501), his enemies caused him to be sent back to Spain in irons. Christopher Columbus died at Valladolid, in Spain, in 1506; and his remains were afterwards conveyed to Havana, in Cuba, where they still remain.

10. Columbus did not know that he discovered a new continent, but thought that he had only reached the eastern shores of Asia. This secret was revealed to Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator, who explored the eastern coast of South America and published a glowing description of that vast continent, claiming to be its true discoverer. In honor of this explorer, the New World was unjustly named "America."

Amerigo Vespucci.

11. In the year 1512, A. D., John Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, sailed from Porto Rico, in search of a "fountain of youth," which was said to exist on the neighboring continent. This fountain was said to restore youth and to perpetuate it. On the 27th of March (1512), Ponce de Leon reached the North American continent at the great peninsula between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, and named the domain "Florida," because its banks were laden with flowers, and because the discovery was made on Pasqua de Flores, or Easter Sunday, when the Spanish churches were decorated with flowers. Ponce de Leon was afterwards killed in a contest with the natives of Florida.

Discovery of Florida by John Ponce de Leon.

12. In 1513 the Spaniard Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama, and discovered the Pacific Ocean which he called "South Sea." He waded into its waters in full costume, and took possession

Discovery of the Pacific Ocean.

of sea and land in the name of his sovereign the King of Spain. Balboa was put to death by order of the Spanish governor of Darien.

13. The name "Pacific Ocean" was given to the South Sea by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, who, in the service of the king of Spain, sailed through the straits, in the southern part of South America, which bear his name; in 1520; and who, several years afterwards, was killed on the Phillipine Islands by the natives, and whose followers returned to Spain by way of the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, thus completing the first circumnavigation of the globe.

**Ferdinand
Magellan's
Circumnavi-
gation of the
globe.**

14. In 1539, Ferdinand De Soto, then the Spanish governor of Cuba, landed in Florida, and, proceeding westward, discovered the great river Mississippi, and explored the continent as far west as the Rocky Mountains. De Soto died on the banks of the Mississippi river, in 1541; and the remnant of his followers, having suffered terribly, found their way to a Spanish settlement in Mexico.

**Discovery of
the Missis-
sippi River
by Ferdinand
de Soto.**

15. In 1496, John Cabot, a native of Venice, but at that time a merchant of Bristol, in England, obtained the aid of King Henry VII. of England in fitting out an expedition for the discovery of a North-west passage to India. The next year (A. D., 1497), the expedition under the command of John Cabot's son, Sebastian, sailed westward, and discovered the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland. Thus Sebastian Cabot was the discoverer of the continent of North America. In 1498, Sebastian Cabot again sailed westward, and explored the greater part of the Atlantic coast of the present United States. In 1517, Sebastian Cabot was again sent to find a North-west passage to India; and in 1526, while in the service of the king of Spain, he discovered the great river La Plata, in South America.

**Sebastian
Cabot's
voyages.**

16. In 1524, Francis I., King of France, employed John Verrazzani, a Florentine, to make discoveries in the New World. Verrazzani explored the Atlantic coast of North America, from the mouth of the Cape Fear River to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and named the region "New France." In 1584, the French king sent James Cartier, a Frenchman, on an expedition to New France. Cartier discovered the mouth of the great river which he named St. Lawrence. In 1585, Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence, exploring the country to Montreal.

Expeditions
of John Ver-
razzani and
James
Cartier.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

AGE OF HENRY VIII AND CHARLES V. — THE GERMAN REFORMATION.

NOTE.—We have now reached a point in our work from whence we can best proceed by dividing the field before us into the natural division of centuries. Commencing with the sixteenth century, we will trace the events in modern history down to the present time. A. D., 1877.

1. In different ages, as we have seen, there had been men who protested against the assumptions of the Holy See and the immorality and licentiousness of the clergy; but every attempt at a reformation of the Church had failed. The abuses and cor-
ruptions of the Church increased. The ma-
jority of the clergy were ignorant and immoral. There were many who were dissatisfied with the existing corrupt state of the Church, and who only waited for an opportunity to unite themselves in a powerful opposition to the Roman Pontiff. The opportunity was at length given by Pope Leo X., as we shall presently see; and in 1517 the assumptions of the holy see were openly opposed by Dr. Martin Luther, a pious Augustinian monk, who was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, on the 10th of November, 1483. Luther early exhibited great capacities for learn-

Corruption
of the Church
—Dr. Martin
Luther

ing; and he had studied jurisprudence four years, when, in 1506, he entered an Augustinian monastery, where he found a neglected copy of the Bible, to the study of which he then diligently devoted himself. He soon became convinced of the errors of the existing Romish Church, and his fame for learning and piety procured for him the appointment of professor in the University of Wittenberg, on the Elbe.

2. In 1513, John de Medicis, of the illustrious ruling family of Florence, was elected Pope with the title of Leo

**Pope Leo X.
and the Sale
of Indul-
gences.**

X. In order to defray the expenses of the building of the great Church of St. Peter, in Rome, which had been begun by his predecessor, Julius III., Leo X. offered the sale of indulgences, or licenses to sin, by which not only past sins, but those that might afterwards be committed, could be pardoned. Agents were sent into different European countries to sell these indulgences, and the Pope obtained a great profit from their sale.

3. In 1517, the Augustinian monk, Martin Luther, then a professor of theology in the University of Wittenberg,

**Martin
Luther and
his Ninety-
five Theses.**

on the Elbe, read in public his famous ninety-five theses, in which he boldly denied the right of the Pope to offer pardon to any but the penitent. This was the beginning of the great religious "Reformation," which convulsed Europe during the sixteenth century. Luther found many adherents. The Elector of Saxony, who had adopted his views, effectually protected him from all the attempts of the exasperated Papists to secure him. The Reformation made rapid progress from this time. Luther separated himself more and more from the Romish Church; and the art of printing enabled him to make known his opinions in all Christian countries.

4. In 1519, Dr. Luther had a disputation, at Leipsic, with Dr. Eckius, the papal theologian and professor in

Ingolstadt. Luther there asserted that the ^{Luther's} Bishop of Rome had not been Pope by the ^{Disputation} ordination of Christ, and expressed doubts of ^{with Eckius} the Pope's infallibility, or incapability to err. In order to prove that the Papacy was a divine institution, Eckius composed a work in which he endeavored to show that it was derived from Christ through St. Peter.

5. In 1520, the Pope condemned Luther's writings as heretical and ordered them to be burned, and threatened the great Reformer with excommunication, ^{Condemnation of} unless he recanted within sixty days. Luther ^{Luther's} was still active in exposing the errors and cor- ^{Writings.} ruptions of the Romish Church; and, on the 10th of December, 1520, in the midst of a vast concourse of people in the public square of Wittenberg, the great Reformer cast the volumes of the canon-law of the Romish Church, together with the papal bull of condemnation, into the flames.

6. In 1519, the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian I., Charles I. of Spain and Burgundy, was elected Emperor of Germany with the title of Charles V. The ^{The Emperor} new emperor, whose first attention was directed ^{Charles V.} to a unity of the Church, called a Diet of the ^{and the Diet} German Empire at Worms, in 1520, at which the Reformer of Wittenberg was to appear, to answer for his conduct. ^{of Worms.} Provided with a safe-conduct from the Emperor, Luther went to Worms, and presented himself before the assembled Diet. He avowed himself the author of the writings that were produced; and boldly and firmly vindicated his opinions, and rejected the invitation to recant without being convinced from the scriptures of the errors of his views. Through the honorable conduct of the emperor, Dr. Luther was allowed to return unmolested to Wittenberg. Then the Diet pronounced the ban of the Empire against Luther and his adherents and defenders, and sentenced his writings to the flames.

7. After his return to Wittenberg, Luther was placed in confinement for protection in the castle of Wartburg, by the Elector Frederic of Saxony. Here the great Reformer commenced his translation of the Bible, which appeared completed in 1534. In 1522, Luther left the Wartburg castle and returned to Wittenberg, for the purpose of checking the hasty innovations of Dr. Carlstadt and the new fanatical sect of the Anabaptists.

8. The Reformation soon spread beyond the borders of Saxony. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse was a believer in the doctrines of the Reformers. In 1524 the Pope entered into the "Alliance of, Regensburg" with Archduke Ferdinand of Austria and the Duke of Bavaria, for the purpose of preventing the establishment of the new faith in their own territories.

9. An insurrection, known as the "Peasant War," now broke out in different parts of Germany. The peasants, led by such religious fanatics as Thomas Munzer, Hans Miller, and George Metzler, rose in arms against the German princes and nobles. Thomas Munzer was defeated by the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse, and captured and executed; and the insurrection was soon suppressed in all parts of the German Empire.

10. In 1524, Luther left the cloister and married Catharine of Bora, who had formerly been a nun. This aroused the rage of his opponents to a still greater degree. The Reformation was still making rapid progress in Northern Germany; and Luther had now a co-laborer in the Reformation, in the mild and peaceable, and learned Philip Melancthon.

11. The Emperor Charles V., determined to arrest the progress of the Reformation, assembled a Diet of the Ger-

man Empire at Spire, in 1529. In this Diet it was resolved by the Catholic German princes Diet of Spire
—The Protestation. that no further innovations should be made in the Romish religion; and that the progress of the new faith should be checked. The princes who favored the Reformation, entered a protest against this decree of the Imperial Diet, on which account they were called Protestants,—a name now applied to all Christians, who do not recognize the authority of the Heads of the Romish and Greek Churches, and who differ in doctrine and practice from those churches.

12. The German Emperor called another Diet of his Empire at Augsburg, in 1530, to heal the dissensions in the Church and effect a reconciliation of opinions. In this Diet, Melancthon presented the articles of faith of the Reformers, known Diet of Augsburg—The Augsburg Confession. as the "Augsburg Confession." In this confession the abuses in the Romish Church were enumerated. The Catholic members of the Diet endeavored to defend the usages of their Church; and no reconciliation of opposing opinions took place, as neither party would make any concessions. After the protesting princes had withdrawn from the Diet, that assembly left Augsburg and threatened the Protestants with being put under the ban of the Empire, if they refused to renounce their innovations.

13. The Protestants were already divided into two great parties. Some were the followers of Luther, while others were the disciples of the learned priest, Ulric Zwingle—Religious War in Switzerland Ulric Zwingle, who was born in Switzerland in 1484. Zwingle, who had opposed the sale of indulgences and the corruption of the Church with all his might, endeavored to improve the morals of the people. He differed from Luther with respect to the Lord's Supper. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse, who endeavored to unite all the opponents of the

Church of Rome into one powerful party, induced Luther to have a disputation with Zwingli, at Marburg. Zwingli construed the words, "This is my body," to mean "This represents my body;" while Luther contended that the body of the Lord was present in the bread and wine. Zwingli offered Luther his hand with tears in his eyes, and asked to be received as a brother; but Luther declined the offer, and thrust back his own hand. Luther also refused to recognize those who had adopted Zwingli's doctrines as Christians. A religious war broke out between the Catholics and Zwinglians in Switzerland, in 1530. The Zwinglians were defeated in the battle of Kappel, in 1531; and the noble-hearted Zwingli was slain, and his body was buried by the victorious Catholics.

CHAPTER LXXX.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY—(*Continued*).

WARS BETWEEN CHARLES V. OF GERMANY AND FRANCIS I. OF FRANCE.

1. THE dominions over which Charles V. ruled were the most extensive, at that time, in Christendom. Charles V. was the grandson of Maximilian of Austria and Mary of Burgundy, and also of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. While yet a youth, Charles was lord of the Netherlands; and on the death of Ferdinand of Aragon, in 1516, he obtained the kingdom of Spain, with Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia, together with the Spanish possessions in America. Shortly afterward, the succession in the sovereignty of the hereditary Austrian territories devolved upon him from his grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian I.; and in 1519, he was chosen Emperor of Germany, by the German Electoral Princes. Charles V. soon bestowed his hereditary Austrian estates on his brother Ferdinand, who also added the kingdom of Bohemia and a large portion of Hungary to the possessions of the House of Hapsburg.

The Possessions of Charles V.

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2. The great rival of the Emperor Charles V. was the chivalrous Duke Francis of Angoulême, who on the death of Louis XII., in 1515, ascended the throne of France, with the title of Francis I.; and who ^{Francis I. of France.} was also a candidate for the imperial throne of Germany, and on the election of Charles V. became his rival enemy. Four wars arose between these two monarchs, caused by the claims of each to the other's possessions in Italy, Navarre, and the Netherlands.

3. Charles V. and Francis I. each wished to secure the favor of the vain and capricious Henry VIII. of England. Charles visited Henry in England, and Francis met him at Calais, at the splendid festival, ^{Henry VIII. of England.} known, on account of its magnificence, as the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." The Emperor, however, succeeded in winning the favor of the English monarch, by bribing and flattering Henry's celebrated Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey.

4. Besides securing the aid of the King of England, the Emperor of Germany also obtained the alliance of Pope Leo X., while the King of France received the assistance of the Swiss, the Genoese, ^{The Allies of Charles V. and Francis I.} and the Venetians.

5. Since the famous battle of Marignano, in 1515, in which Francis I. had defeated the Milanese, the Duchy of Milan had remained in the possession of the French king; but Charles V. claimed the duchy as a fief of the German Empire, and ^{German Invasion of Italy—Loss of Milan to the French.} marched a powerful army of German peasants into Italy, against the French and their Swiss allies. The French soon lost Milan, and an attempt to recover the duchy brought on the battle of Bicocca, in which the French were completely defeated. Pope Leo X., died of joy caused by these events. Pope Adrian VI., Leo's successor, induced Florence and Genoa to enter into an alliance with Charles V.

6. Charles V. and Henry VIII. invaded France at the same time, but their forces were driven back. Encouraged by this partial success, Francis I. again attempted the recovery of Milan; and in 1523, he sent another army into Italy for that purpose, but his undertaking failed, in a great measure, through the conduct of his wicked mother, Louisa of Savoy, whose injustice to the Constable de Bourbon made that powerful French nobleman the most bitter enemy of the French court, and caused him to enter into the service of the German Emperor against his own sovereign.

7. The French army which had been sent to attempt the recovery of Milan was also unsuccessful, and was finally compelled to retreat across the Alps, pursued by the German imperial army under the Constable de Bourbon. During this retreat the Chevalier Bayard, "the Knight without fear and without reproach," who commanded the French rear, received a wound of which he shortly afterward died.

8. In 1524, the imperial German forces under the Constable de Bourbon invaded Southern France, and laid siege to Marseilles; but on the approach of Francis I., with a powerful army, Bourbon raised the siege and beat a precipitate retreat. The king of France pursued Bourbon's retreating forces into Italy and reconquered Milan.

9. With characteristic imprudence, Francis I. laid siege to the strongly fortified town of Pavia, which was defended by a numerous garrison, under the command of Antonio de Leyva, an able general. The imperial generals, the most energetic of whom was the Constable de Bourbon, made the greatest efforts to collect a numerous army for the relief of the garrison of Pavia. The inactivity and indiscretion of the French king, who weakened his army by sending

**French Invasion of Italy—
Defection of
the Constable
de Bourbon.**

**French Retreat from
Italy.**

**Bourbon's
Invasion
of France.**

**Battle of
Pavia and
Captivity of
Francis I.**

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detachments against Naples and Savona, operated in favor of the imperialists. Bourbon accordingly resolved to attack the French in their intrenchments; and on the 2d of February, 1525, Bourbon's army stormed the French camp, while at the same time the garrison of Pavia made a furious sally, thus placing the French between two fires. After a most sanguinary conflict, the French army was almost totally destroyed. Twelve thousand brave warriors were either killed in the encounter, or drowned in the waters of the Ticino. The chivalrous Francis himself, after a gallant defence, was compelled to surrender, and conveyed a prisoner to Madrid. In a single line, the captive Francis conveyed the intelligence of the sad event to his mother, "Madame, all is lost but honor."

10. After a year's captivity in the Spanish capital, the King of France concluded with his triumphant rival the peace of Madrid. (1526.) In this treaty, **Peace of Madrid and Release of Francis I.** Francis I., renounced his claims to Milan, surrendered the Dukedom of Burgundy to Charles **Francis I. V.**, and delivered up his two sons to the Emperor as hostages for the fulfilment of the stipulations.

11. No sooner had Francis I., after his release, returned to his own kingdom, upon delivering up his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of the stipulations **The Holy League Against Charles V.** of the Peace of Madrid, than he openly denied the validity of a treaty that had been extorted from him while a prisoner; and the Pope absolved him from his obligations to the Emperor Charles V. The increasing power of Charles now excited the jealousy of the other princes of Europe; and the kings of France and England, the Italian princes, and the Pope entered into an alliance called "the Holy League," to compel the Emperor of Germany to liberate the sons of the French monarch, and to restore the Duchy of Milan to the family of Sforza.

12. Irritated at the Pope's alliance with the enemies

of Charles V., the Constable de Bourbon, who commanded the German and Spanish forces in Italy, marched upon Rome; and on the 6th of May, 1527, the Eternal City was taken by storm and plundered by the soldiers of a Catholic prince. The Constable de Bourbon was among the slain. The pillage of Rome by the Germans on this occasion equalled that of the Goths and the Vandals, more than a thousand years before. Convents, churches, and dwelling-houses were plundered; and nearly 8,000 Romans were massacred on the day of the capture of the city. Pope Clement VII. was besieged in his castle of St. Angelo, and soon obliged to surrender himself a prisoner. Charles V. affected great sorrow and displeasure at the insults suffered by the Head of the Church, but was inwardly pleased at the Pope's humiliation; and instead of ordering the release of the Holy Father, the hypocritical emperor commanded prayers for the liberation of the Pontiff to be offered in all the churches in his dominions.

13. The pillage of Rome and the captivity of the Pope excited the indignation of the allies of Charles V. to such a degree that Francis I. was enabled again to invade Italy and to advance to the very walls of Naples; but the French monarch, by his impolicy and mismanagement, lost his most faithful allies. "The Genoese admiral Andrea Doria, now supported the Emperor of Germany, and restored the Republic of Genoa and earned for himself the glorious title of "Father of his Country and the Restorer of its Liberties."

14. Both the rival monarchs had now become anxious for peace; and the second war between Charles V. and Francis I. was closed in 1529, by the "Ladies' Peace" of Cambray, so called because it was negotiated by the aunt of Charles and the mother of Francis. By this treaty the King of France relinquished his pretensions to the Duchy of Milan, and

**Successful
Career of
Francis I.
in Italy.**

**The "Ladies'
Peace" of
Cambray.**

paid two million crowns for the ransom of his two sons held as hostages by the German Emperor; but retained possession of the Duchedom of Burgundy.

15. In the mean time, the Mighty Sultan of Turkey, Solyman the Magnificent, led an army of 30,000 men into Hungary, and after gaining the battle of Mohacz, advanced to the very walls of Vienna, and laid siege to that proud capital, but the infidels were soon defeated and driven back. (1529.)

Turkish In-
vasion of
Hungary
and Austria.

16. After having driven the Turks from the Austrian territories, the Emperor Charles V., in 1535, led an expedition of 30,000 men to Africa, attacked and captured Tunis, and compelled the Mohammedan prince, Hayraddin Barbarossa, the terror of all Christians, to abandon his piracies, and to set at liberty 22,000 Christian captives, whom the piratical Moors had reduced to slavery.

First Expe-
dition of
Charles V.
to Africa.

17. On his return to Europe, Charles V. found himself obliged to engage for a third time in hostilities with the French, who had formed an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, and who, during the emperor's absence in Africa, had invaded Italy, and, as a preliminary step to the reconquest of Milan, seized Savoy and Piedmont, the Duke of which was in alliance with Charles V.

Invasion of
Italy by
Francis I.

18. In 1536, Charles V. after driving the French from Italy, invaded Southern France with a powerful army, but the French commander, the Constable de Montmorenci, laid waste the country between the Rhone and the Alps, and the emperor was in consequence obliged to make a disgraceful retreat after considerable loss.

Invasion of
France by
Charles V.

19. All Christendom was shocked at the alliance of the king of France with the Sultan of Turkey; and in 1538, Pope Paul III. succeeded in inducing Francis I. and Charles V. to conclude the Ten Years' Truce of Nice.

Ten Years'
Truce of Nice.

Truce of Nice, which suspended hostilities between the rival monarchs.

20. In 1541, the Emperor Charles V. led another expedition to Africa, for the purpose of thoroughly annihilating the power of the piratical Mohammedans of Algiers. But this expedition was a total failure. The fleet of Charles was destroyed by a terrible storm, and many of his followers died of a pestilential disease; and the emperor, who had magnanimously shared all the sufferings of the humblest of his followers, was obliged to reëmbark and return to Europe, without effecting his object.

21. In 1542, a fourth war broke out between Francis I. and Charles V.; the Sultan of Turkey, the kings of Scotland, Denmark, and Sweden, and the Protestant princes of Germany uniting with Henry VIII. the king of France; and the king of England taking sides with the Emperor of Germany.

22. The allied French and Turkish fleets vainly bombarded the castle of Nice, in north-western Italy; and, for the first time, the Christian world beheld, with astonishment and shame, the disgraceful spectacle of Christians and Mohammedans united in hostilities against the leading prince of Christendom.

23. The war was prosecuted with various success in Spain, in France, in Italy, and in the Netherlands; but the only battle of any consequence was that fought at Cerisoles, in north-western Italy, in which the French gained a most brilliant victory.

24. In 1544, France was invaded on the side of Lorraine, by a powerful German army under the Emperor Charles V., and by way of Calais by a considerable English force under King Henry VIII. The English king captured Boulogne, and the German emperor advanced so rapidly toward

Second
African
Expedition
of Charles V.

Coalition
against Char-
les V. and
Henry VIII.

Bombard-
ment of Nice.

Progress of
the War.

Invasion of
France by
Charles V.
and Henry
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Paris that the French monarch became alarmed, and hastily concluded the Peace of Crespi with his powerful rival. By this peace, the two rival monarchs agreed to restore all the conquests which they had made during the war, to unite against the Turks, and to suppress the Reformed religion in their respective dominions. From this time, for several centuries, Italy was under the undisputed possession of the House of Hapsburg. At length a treaty of peace was also concluded between the kings of France and England. Both Francis I. and Henry VIII. died in 1547; and Charles V. directed his whole energy to the suppression of the religious Reformation in the German Empire.

25. King Henry II. of France, the son and successor of Francis I., engaged in hostilities with the Emperor Charles V., and formed an alliance with the Protestant princes of Germany, while in his own dominions he endeavored to arrest the progress of the Reformed doctrines by the most sanguinary persecutions.

*Alliance of
Henry II. of
France with
the Protest-
ant Princes
of Germany.*

26. Henry II. led an army into the German Dukedom of Lorraine, and captured the strong fortresses of Toul, Verdun, and Metz. These conquests Charles V. resolved to wrest from the young French monarch. In 1552, Charles laid siege to Metz, which was so gallantly and successfully defended by the French garrison, under the command of the valiant Francis of Lorraine, Duke of Guise, that the German Emperor after a siege of little more than two months, was obliged to retire and to beat a disgraceful retreat, having lost in all, during the siege, about 40,000 men.

*Siege of
Metz.*

27. In 1554, Charles V., after a vigorous siege, took the town of Tournenue by assault, destroyed it, and put the entire garrison to the sword. The war was continued between Henry II. and Charles's son, Philip II. of Spain, until 1559, when the

*Capture and
Destruction
of Tournenue.*

Peace of Chateau-Cambresis put an end to the long contest between the Houses of Valois and Hapsburg.

CHAPTER LXXXI.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY—(*Continued*).

THE RELIGIOUS WAR IN GERMANY.

1. As the Emperor Charles V., after the Peace of Cambray, in 1529, seemed determined to suppress the religious Reformation in his dominions, the **The league of Schmalkald.** Protestant princes of Germany, with the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrasse Hvee of at their head, united, in 1530, for their own protection, and formed an alliance, known as "the League of Schmalkald," which was joined by the kings of England, France, Denmark, and Sweden.
2. The Emperor of Germany was obliged to avoid hostilities with his Protestant subjects at this time, in consequence of the formidable invasions of the **Effect of the Turkish Austrians on the Reformation.** Austrian territories by the Turks, who were then the most powerful people in Europe. Thus these constant Turkish invasions were highly favorable to the cause of the Reformation, as the Protestants of Germany refused to assist the emperor in driving back the infidels, as long as the sword of Catholic vengeance was raised over their heads. The plans of Charles V. for the extermination of heresy were thus frustrated, and he found himself obliged to conclude with the League of Schmalkald the Peace of Nuremberg, in 1532.
3. The Reformation still continued to make rapid progress throughout Germany; and the Reformed religion **Progress of the Reformation in Germany.** was at length introduced into the Duchy of Wurtemberg, the March of Brandenburg, the Palatinate, Baden, and Cologne. In Munster, a fanatical sect, known as "Anabaptists" became

numerous. A few decades later, the Anabaptists experienced a salutary reformation of their doctrines, from Menno, in which condition, under the name of Mennonites, they have continued to the present time.

4. Importuned by the Emperor Charles V., Pope Paul III. summoned a Council of the Church to meet at Trent, in the Tyrol, for the purpose of affecting a reconciliation of opposing opinions and restoring the unity of the Church. The Protestants foreseeing that their doctrines would be condemned in a Council held under the auspices of the Pope, rejected it as partial, and demanded in its stead, a general synod of the Church of Germany. The Council, however, assembled at Trent, in December, 1545. Dr. Martin Luther died in his native city, Eisleben, in Saxony, on February 18th, 1546.

The Council of Trent summoned.

5. The very first decision of the Council of Trent rendered a reconciliation of opposing opinions hopeless; and the emperor, having concluded a disgraceful peace with Sultan Solymán the Magnificent, now determined to crush the Reformation by force of arms, and, in the year 1547, the Religious War of Schmalkald broke out between Charles V. and his Protestant German subjects. The Protestant princes of Germany seemed to be well prepared for the contest, but all their efforts were rendered fruitless by the perfidy of one of their own number,—Duke Maurice of Saxony,—who deserted the League of Schmalkald, and allied himself with the emperor. The Schmalkald forces were soon broken up, and the Protestant towns of Germany were obliged to submit to the emperor.

The religious war of Schmalkald.

6. Maurice's cousin, the Elector John Frederic of Saxony, still held out against the emperor, and defeated Maurice and recovered Saxony. The emperor marched to the assistance of the perfidious Maurice, and in the decisive battle of Muhlberg, John Frederic was defeated, wounded, and made

Defeat of Maurice—
Battle of Muhlberg.

prisoner by the Emperor, who bestowed the Electorate of Saxony on Maurice. Shortly after the defeat and capture of John Frederic, another leading Protestant prince, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse, was treacherously made a prisoner by the Duke of Alva.

7. The Council of Trent assembled on the 13th of December, 1545. The division in the Church was made greater than before; and the Pope, suspecting the Emperor of Germany of a design to limit the papal power, removed the Council to Bologna, in Italy; but Charles V. forbade the clergy to leave Trent, and a small number of them remained.

The Council of Trent.

8. For the purpose of bringing about a restoration of the unity of the Church, the Emperor Charles V. published an edict, which set forth how matters should be conducted until the termination of the Council of Trent; and the "Augsburg Interim" of Charles V., which was strictly conformable to the tenets of the Romish Church, and the "Leipsic Interim," which had been framed by Melancthon, were not favorably received by the Protestant princes and towns, and were utterly rejected in Northern Germany. The Council of the Church resumed its sittings at Trent.

The Augsburg Interim.

9. When the Emperor Charles V. seemed to have attained the object of his desires; when everything seemed to

Maurice of Saxony makes war on the Emperor Charles V.

insure his elevation to the position of temporal head of all Christendom; and when the Council of the Church had reassembled at Trent, Duke Maurice of Saxony, the prince to whom Charles V. was indebted for the overthrow of the League of Schamkald, seeing to what dangers the civil and religious liberties of Germany were exposed by the ambitious schemes of the emperor, suddenly formed a secret alliance with King Henry II. of France, but concealed his designs until the most favorable time arrived for their execution. Maurice immediately granted freedom

of religion to the Protestant city of Magdeburg, which he had been for some time besieging; and then, suddenly throwing off the mask, he marched towards Innspruck, in the Tyrol, to make the emperor a prisoner. The Council of Trent was broken up in confusion; Charles V., who was then afflicted with the gout, escaped with difficulty, in the night, into Carinthia, and released the Elector John Frederic of Saxony, whom he had kept a prisoner since the battle of Muhlberg. At the same time, Henry II. of France invaded the German Dukedom of Lorraine, and seized the strong towns of Toul, Verdun, and Metz.

10. Alarmed at the rapid advance of Maurice, the emperor's brother, Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, immediately concluded with the Protestant princes the Religious Peace of Passau, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect religious freedom; the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was set at liberty; and a permanent peace and amnesty was decided upon. This was the first victory of the Reformation.

Religious
Peace of
Passau.

11. The triumphant Maurice next marched against the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, who refused to accept the treaty of Passau and still continued the war. Maurice was victorious in the battle of Sivershausen, but received a wound of which he died a few days afterward.

Death of
Maurice.

12. In 1555, the Religious Peace of Augsburg was concluded between Charles V. and his Protestant German subjects, by which the Protestants were allowed perfect liberty of conscience and full toleration for their religion, as well as equal civil and political rights with the Catholics.

Religious
Peace of
Augsburg.

13. The failure of the attempts of Charles V. to restore the unity of the Church made the emperor lose all interest in the affairs of the world; and in 1556, to the astonishment of the whole world, he abdicated all his thrones and retired to the

Abdication
and retire-
ment of
Charles V.

monastery of St. Just, in the West of Spain. He bestowed Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and Spanish America on his son, Philip II., and the Austrian territories on his brother Ferdinand, who was chosen by the German Electoral Princes to succeed him on the imperial throne of Germany, with the title of Ferdinand I. Charles spent the remaining two years of his life in religious devotion and mechanical inventions. Having failed in repeated attempts to make two watches run exactly alike, he is said to have exclaimed, "I cannot make two watches run alike, and yet, fool that I was, I thought of governing so many nations of different languages and religions, and living in different climes!" Two days before his death he went through the ceremonies of his burial. He died in 1588.

CHAPTER LXXXII.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY—(*Continued*).

THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND.

1. THE avaricious Henry VII., at his death, in 1509, was succeeded on the throne of England by his son, Henry VIII., who proved to be one of the most passionate, capricious, and tyrannical sovereigns that ever occupied a throne. Henry VIII., who was only eighteen years of age when he became monarch, was one of the most learned princes of his time. He ascended the throne under very happy circumstances; the kingdom was prosperous and at peace; and the claims of the Houses of York and Lancaster were united in the young king's person.

2. As the Earl of Surrey encouraged the lavishness of the youthful monarch, Bishop Fox of Winchester introduced at Court the shrewd and dexterous Thomas Wolsey, who was immediately taken into the service of the king, who at length made him Prime-minister. For a considerable period,

**Accession of
Henry VIII.**

**Cardinal
Wolsey.**

Wolsey acted a more conspicuous part in the affairs of England than his sovereign. In 1518, Wolsey was made a cardinal by the Pope. Cardinal Wolsey had a train of eight hundred servants, and he excelled all churchmen in dignity. He encouraged learning, and invited the learned Erasmus of Rotterdam to come to Oxford to teach Greek. Wolsey's inordinate ambition finally caused his own fall.

3. In 1513, King Henry VIII. invaded France and defeated the French at Tourney, in an action known as "the Battle of the Spurs," so called because the French army fled at the first onset. After his victory, Henry VIII. immediately returned to England. On the very day of the Battle of the Spurs (September 10, 1513), an English army under Lord Surrey defeated and killed King James IV. of Scotland, in the celebrated "Battle of Flodden Field," in the north-eastern corner of England.

*Invasion of
France by
Henry VIII.*

4. The favor of Henry VIII., as we have already seen, was courted by each of the two rival monarchs, Charles V. of Germany and Francis I. of France. Charles flattered the vanity of Henry by paying him a visit to England, in 1520; after which the English monarch went to Calais to meet the French king. The meeting of Henry and Francis, which took place in June, 1520, in a plain near Calais, lasted a fortnight, and because of the magnificence there displayed, the meeting is known as "the Field of the Cloth of Gold."

*Visit of the
Emperor
Charles V. to
Henry VIII.*

5. In 1521, King Henry VIII. wrote a Latin volume against Dr. Luther and the Reformation, for which he was loudly praised by Pope Leo X., who conferred upon the royal author the title of "Defender of the Faith," and sent the king a letter, praising his learning, zeal, ability, and wisdom.

*Henry VIII.
writes a vol-
ume against
Luther.*

6. Henry VIII. had been married to Catharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, in 1502. He

Henry VIII. now applied to Pope Clement VII. for a divorce from Catherine, that he might marry the beautiful Anne Boleyn, one of the ladies of his court. The Pope, fearing the displeasure of the Emperor Charles V., who was Catharine's nephew, refused to grant the request of the English king; but Henry, supported by the opinions of learned men, such as the young and virtuous Thomas Cranmer, whom the king made Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1533, obtained a divorce from Catharine and then married Anne Boleyn.

7. Cardinal Wolsey, who was believed to be opposed to the divorce of Henry VIII. from Catherine, soon began to lose the king's favor; and at length the ambitious cardinal was banished from court, and all his estates were seized by the king. **Disgrace and death of Cardinal Wolsey.** A charge of treason was also preferred against Wolsey. At York, Wolsey was attacked with a violent fever, occasioned by anxiety and grief at his fall. In this dangerous condition, the fallen Minister set out for London, but died on his way, at Leicester Abbey, on the 29th of November, 1530. On his death-bed, he uttered the affecting words, "Had I served my God with half the diligence that I served my king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

8. The Pope was greatly exasperated at Henry VIII., because of his divorce from his first wife; and in consequence the English monarch separated himself from the Römish Church, and caused an act to be passed by his Parliament, in 1534, transferring the supremacy of the Church in England from the Pope of Rome to the king of England. The English monasteries and nunneries were dissolved, and their possessions were bestowed on the crown. The learned Sir Thomas More, the author of "Utopia," and Bishop Fisher of Rochester, declined to approve of the act which made the king Head of the English Church, and both were con-

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sequently beheaded. The king violently persecuted both Lutherans and Roman Catholics. The Pope at length excommunicated Henry VIII., who resented the anger of the Holy Father by causing those who had prepared the excommunication to be put to death.

9. Henry VIII. soon became displeased with Anne Boleyn; and in 1536, he caused her to be beheaded on a false accusation. The very next day after the execution of Anne Boleyn, the king married Jane Seymour, who died the following year, 1537.

**Execution of
Anne Boleyn**

10. By the advice of his minister, Sir Thomas Cromwell, who had been one of Wolsey's favorite servants, Henry VIII., in 1540, married Anne of Cleves, a German princess, of whom he had seen a portrait which had been taken by Hans Holbein, the great Swiss painter; but the king soon obtained a divorce from Anne, and beheaded Cromwell, who had advised the marriage. Henry VIII. next married Catharine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk; but in 1542, he caused her to be beheaded, and then married Catharine Parr, who outlived him.

**Henry's last
three wives.**

11. As we have already said, Henry VIII. vehemently persecuted both Lutherans and Roman Catholics in his own dominions,—the former as heretics, and the latter for refusing to recognize him as the Head of the Church in England; and many were burned at the stake. The king was fond of theological discussions, but woe to such as had the hardihood to differ from him. On one occasion his last wife Catherine Parr, who was a Protestant, narrowly escaped being sacrificed to his anger, for expressing her religious opinions rather too freely.

**The king's
zeal against
Lutherans
and Roman
Catholics.**

12. The pious Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was a zealous friend of the Reformation, was greatly respected by King Henry VIII., whose per-

Cranmer's translation of the Bible. mission the Archbishop at length obtained to have the Ten Commandments and the Lord's Prayer translated into English; and finally, with the consent of the king, Cranmer prepared a new translation of the Bible, Wickliffe's translation being too faulty in many particulars.

13. In 1541, Henry VIII. commenced a war against Scotland. The English army defeated the Scots in the battle of Solway Moss, which so disheartened the Scotch king, James V., that he died a few months afterward (December, 1542), and the crown of Scotland fell to his daughter Mary, then a mere child. Peace was made between England and Scotland in 1546. In 1544, Henry VIII., while at war with France, as an ally of the Emperor Charles V., invaded France and captured Boulogne.

War between England and Scotland. 14. The tyranny of Henry VIII. increased as he advanced in years; and in 1547, he caused the Duke of Norfolk, and his son, the Earl of Surrey, the leading English noblemen, to be arrested. Surrey was executed on a false charge of treason. Henry VIII. died soon afterward. Just before his death, the king signed a warrant for the execution of the Duke of Norfolk, but happily the warrant was not carried into execution.

Execution of the Earl of Surrey. 15. The son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, succeeded Henry VIII. on the throne of England, with the title of Edward VI. As the new king, at the time of his accession, was only nine years old, the government of the kingdom was entrusted to his uncle, the Duke of Somerset, with the title of Protector. Edward VI. was educated a Protestant by his uncle, who appointed the virtuous Latimer the young king's preacher. Edward's greatest delight was in studying theology and in listening to sermons; and he gave great promise of becoming a good monarch.

Accession of Edward VI.

16. The Protector soon set about establishing the Protestant religion in England; and Archbishop Cranmer and Bishop Ridley of London were appointed to prepare a book of prayer. The Psalms were translated into English; and the Thirty-nine Articles were drawn up by Cranmer. These articles are the confession of faith of the Church of England. In order to insure a religious conformity of faith, many of the Catholic prayers were retained. This was the establishment of the Anglican Church.

Establishment of the Church of England.

17. The Protector sought to carry out the wish of Henry VIII. for a marriage of Edward VI. with the young Mary, Queen of Scots. As the Protector did not succeed in accomplishing that object by treaty, he led an army into Scotland and defeated the Scottish army in the battle of Pinkie, on the 10th of September, 1547. This event exasperated the Scots to such a degree that they sent Mary to France, where she was married to the Dauphin, afterward King Francis II. of France.

The Protector's invasion of Scotland.

18. The wicked Dudley, Earl of Warwick, caused Seymour, the brother of the Duke of Somerset, to attempt to raise himself to the Protectorship, and then induced the Protector to have him executed for high treason. Warwick's next act was the overthrow and execution of the Protector for high treason. Warwick, who was created Earl of Northumberland, now ruled the kingdom. The pious King Edward VI. died in 1553, at the early age of fifteen years.

Execution of Seymour and the Protector.

19. The unscrupulous and usurping Earl of Northumberland had procured the appointment of his daughter-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, as the successor of Edward VI. to the English throne; but Lady Jane was obliged to yield the throne to Edward's half-sister, Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon. Mary, who was

Lady Jane Grey—Accession of Mary—Restoration of Catholicism.

a bigoted Roman Catholic, soon forgot her promises of toleration to her Protestant subjects, and restored the popish religion in her kingdom.

20. In 1554, Queen Mary of England married Philip, son of the Emperor Charles V., and afterward King Philip II. of Spain, who was also an unrelenting Catholic. The consequence of this marriage was an insurrection in England, against the authority of Queen Mary, whom the insurgents intended to depose. The revolt was suppressed, and many of the leading insurgents were executed. Lady Jane Grey, whom the malcontents intended to elevate to the English throne, and who was falsely accused of countenancing their design, also died on the scaffold.

21. We have already said that Queen Mary restored the Roman Catholic religion in England. She also proceeded to a vigorous persecution of her Protestant subjects; and many pious bishops and ministers were burned alive for adhering to the Protestant faith. Among those who thus perished at the stake were Bishop Ridley of London, Bishop Hooper of Gloucester, the pious Latimer, and the good Archbishop Cranmer. The bigoted queen had allowed Cranmer an opportunity to recant; and the Archbishop, in a moment of weakness, signed a paper avowing his belief in popery; but when his strength returned, he again avowed his full belief in Protestant doctrines; and when he was brought to the stake, he first put the hand with which he signed the paper avowing his belief in Roman Catholicism, into the fire, and held it there until it was burnt off, saying, "This is the arm that has offended."

22. In 1556, Queen Mary's husband became king of Spain, with the title of Philip II.; and at the same time, he induced her to join him in a war against France. In 1557, the combined English and Spanish forces defeated the French in the

Mary's marriage with Philip II. of Spain.

Religious persecution and martyrdom.

War with France—Battle of St. Quentin.

battle of St. Quentin, in Northern France; but in 1558, the important town of Calais, which had belonged to England for two centuries, was taken by the French army under the command of the valiant Francis of Lorraine, Duke of Guise. Queen Mary was so overwhelmed at this loss that she died a few months afterward (November, 1558), saying a short time before her death that the word "Calais" would be engraven on her heart. Mary was succeeded as Queen of England by her half-sister, Elizabeth.

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY—(Continued).

THE REFORMATION IN THE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS—THE SOCIETY OF JESUS
—SPANISH CONQUESTS IN AMERICA—PERSIA AND INDIA.

1. THE tyranny and cruelty of King Christian II., of Denmark, who caused ninety-four Swedish nobles to be foully massacred in Stockholm, in 1520, induced the valiant and patriotic Gustavus Vasa, the son of one of these massacred nobles, to attempt the liberation of Sweden from the yoke of the king of Denmark. In the disguise of a peasant, Gustavus Vasa found refuge in the mountainous region of Dalecarlia, whose brave inhabitants flocked to his standard. Gustavus repulsed the Danish troops that had been sent against him, took Upsala, drove the Danish invaders from Swedish soil, and secured his country's independence. In gratitude, the Swedes chose the heroic Gustavus Vasa as their king, and made the Swedish crown hereditary in his family.

2. Under Gustavus Vasa, who died in 1560, the Lutheran religion was established in Sweden. Eric XIV., the son and successor of Gustavus Vasa, became insane, and was imprisoned by his brothers. Eric's successors, John III. and Sigismund III. of Poland, vainly attempted to restore the popish religion in Sweden; and Sigismund was

deposed from his Swedish throne by his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, who assumed the crown of Sweden, with the title of Charles IX. (1600.) The latter king, and his son and successor, Gustavus Adolphus, warred against Poland.

3. The tyrannical Christian II. irritated his Danish subjects to such a degree that they dethroned him, and bestowed the crown of Denmark on Frederic II., who established the Lutheran faith in Denmark. The deposed Christian III. who became a Catholic to obtain the aid of the

**Adoption of
Lutheranism
in Denmark
and Norway.**

Pope and the Emperor of Germany in his efforts to recover his lost crown, was seized and kept a prisoner for sixteen years. The final and perfect establishment of Lutheranism in Denmark was accomplished during the reign of Frederic's son, Christian III. (1524-1559.) The Lutheran religion was also adopted in Norway.

4. The efforts of the Popes to suppress the Reformation, or to arrest its progress, found their chief support in the Order of Jesuits, which was founded in the year 1540, by the excitable and enthusiastic Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish nobleman. After

**Ignatius
Loyola.**

renouncing the military profession, Ignatius made a pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem; and, after his return to Spain, he acquired in Salamanca and Paris the education which he needed, and then he and six associates took upon themselves the three monastic vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, and swore upon the host to allow the objects of their aspirations to be decided upon by the Pope, and then to yield an unconditional submission to his decision. Shortly afterwards, Ignatius and his companions prostrated themselves at the feet of the Holy Father, who confirmed the new Order, which was named "the Society of Jesus." Ignatius Loyola became the chief of the Order, and his successor, the Spaniard Lainez, framed a constitution for the government of this Society, the mem-

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bers of which were endowed by the Popè with great privileges.

5. The Jesuits were obliged to disconnect themselves with the rest of the world. Their chief object was to oppose Protestantism and to suppress the spirit of inquiry awakened by the Reformation.

Objects of the Society of Jesus.

They endeavored, by persecution and seducement, to win Protestants over to Catholicism; and, by getting the education of youth into their hands, they endeavored to bring up the young in the doctrines of the Romish Church.

6. The Society of Jesus acquired immense wealth by presents and legacies, and was thus enabled to establish schools of education, which attracted the nece-

Spread and Influence of the Order of Jesus.

sitous by imparting instruction gratuitously. The Order of Jesuits soon spread over Catholic Europe, and many of its members were engaged, in remote quarters of the globe, in proclaiming the Gospel to heathen. Jesuit missionaries converted many of the American Indians to Christianity, while Jesuitical missions were established in China and Japan.

7. In 1517, the Spaniard Cordova discovered Mexico, the seat of the flourishing empire of the Aztecs, a partially civilized race of American Indians, who had built large cities and established a regular government.

Conquest of Mexico by Fernando Cortez.

In 1519, Fernando Cortez, a Spanish soldier and adventurer, invaded Mexico with 1,500 men; and being joined by some of the natives, he was enabled to take possession of the city of Mexico, and succeeded by treachery in making the Aztec emperor, Montezuma, a prisoner. The Aztecs rose against the invaders, and killed many of them. The ill-fated Montezuma, having tried to induce his people to submit to the strangers, was also put to death by them. Cortez and his followers finally succeeded in conquering the country in 1521; and for three hundred years, Mexico, under the

name of New Spain, was a Spanish province. Cortez, notwithstanding all his services to the Spanish monarch, was treated with ingratitude by his master.

8. In 1529, the brave but cruel Spaniard, Francisco Pizarro, with little more than 300 men, invaded the beautiful country of Peru, which was inhabited by a highly civilized American Indian race, whose monarchs were called "Incas." Like the Aztecs of Mexico, the Peruvians had large cities and a regular government. By treachery, Pizarro made the reigning Inca a prisoner; and notwithstanding his promise to give the Inca his liberty, in return for an enormous amount of gold, Pizarro caused his unfortunate captive to be put to death. Pizarro completed the conquest of the country in 1532; and for nearly three centuries, Peru was a province of Spain. About this time, Almagro, Pizarro's comrade, discovered Chili. Pizarro and Almagro soon quarreled, and the latter was put to death; but Almagro's son, in revenge, caused Pizarro to be murdered. Nearly the whole of the South American coast came into the possession of Spain, during the sixteenth century. The precious metals which Spain obtained from her American possessions made her for a time the leading power of Europe, but finally led to her rapid decline.

9. A powerful Mohammedan dynasty arose in Persia, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, in the person of the warlike Ismael. The dynasty founded by Ismael was called the Suffeean dynasty, from the holy shiek Suffee. Ismael was a great conqueror, but he was once defeated by Sultan Selim I. of Turkey. Ismael was succeeded on the Persian throne by his son Tamasp, under whom Persia prospered. In 1582, Shah Abbas the Great, the grandson of Tamasp, ascended the throne of Persia. This celebrated monarch gained many victories over the Turks, and in 1622, he deprived the Portuguese of the city of Ormuz, on the Per-

Rise of the
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sian Gulf. The arts of peace and internal improvements received great encouragement from Shah Abbas; and the city of Ispahan, which was at that time the capital of Persia, was one of the most splendid and important cities in Asia. The treatment of Shah Abbas toward his children and his relatives was most cruel and inhuman. He caused his oldest son to be put to death, and the eyes of the others to be put out. The Persian Empire rapidly declined under the successors of Shah Abbas.

10. In 1525, Baber, a descendant of the great Mogul conqueror, Tamerlane, invaded Hindoostan, overthrew the Afghan dynasty that had ruled in that country for three centuries, and became the founder of a dynasty of Mogul princes which ruled Hindoostan for more than two centuries. The religion of the Moguls was Mohammedan, and their capital was the city of Delhi, in Northern Hindoostan. The most noted of the Mogul princes who occupied the throne of Delhi were Humayan, Jehanghir, Akbar, and Aurungzebe; the last of whom mounted the throne in 1659, by murdering his father and other relatives. Aurungzebe, however, governed with wisdom and mildness; and the Mogul Empire was very prosperous during his long reign. After the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707, the Mogul Empire in India rapidly declined, and soon fell to pieces.

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY—(Continued).

AGE OF PHILIP II. AND ELIZABETH—SPAIN AND PORTUGAL—WAR OF INDEPENDENCE IN THE NETHERLANDS.

1. UNDER the bigoted, tyrannical, and cruel Philip II., the horrible Inquisition, with all its frightful work, was in full operation in Spain and Naples. Philip's own son, Don Carlos, died in its dungeons. His half-brother, Don Juan, the victor over the Turks in the great sea-fight of Lepanto, in 1571, died of

grief at the treatment which he received from Philip. The Duke of Alva was a cruel instrument for the execution of Philip's tyrannical orders. Philip's tyranny in the Netherlands finally resulted in the loss of those fair provinces to Spain. After the death of Philip II., in 1598, Spain rapidly declined in power and importance. Under his son and successor, Philip III., the Moors of Spain, who for more than a century had suffered the most cruel persecutions, formed a conspiracy for the overthrow of the Spanish power; but the plot was discovered, and the Moors were banished from Spain in 1610. Thus 600,000 Mohammedans were cruelly driven from their homes.

2. On the death of King Henry of Portugal, in 1580, Philip II. of Spain claimed the Portuguese crown, and sent an army under the Duke of Alva to enforce his pretensions. The Portuguese were obliged to submit, the rival claimant, Antonio, being defeated; and Portugal was united with Spain for sixty years. Finally, in 1640, Spanish tyranny produced a rebellion of the Portuguese, who after a brief struggle, regained their independence, and elected the Duke of Braganza for their king, with the title of John IV.

3. King Philip II. of Spain bestowed the vice-regency of the Netherlands on his half-sister, Margaret of Parma, and caused the laws against heresy to be made very severe. At the same time, the Spanish king endeavored to establish the Inquisition, with all its horrible tortures and dungeons, in the Netherlands; and Cardinal Granvella was made Grand Inquisitor. Spanish troops were also sent into the Netherlands to uphold Philip's tyranny.

4. Vain endeavors were made by Prince William of Orange and Count Egmont, to induce the bigoted King of Spain to grant toleration for the Protestant religion in the Netherlands. The Inquisition was opposed by Catholics, as well as by Pro-

**The Sixty
Years' Union
of Spain
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**Efforts for
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testants; and four hundred Roman Catholic nobles petitioned Philip II. for a discontinuance of the horrible institution in the Netherlands; but the bigoted sovereign obstinately refused their request.

5. Spanish tyranny at length led to the collection of mobs in Brussels, Antwerp, and other towns of the Netherlands. These mobs perpetrated many outrages, such as the destruction of crucifixes and images of the saints. In 1567, the infamous and bloodthirsty Duke of Alva was sent into the Netherlands with an army by Philip II. Upon Alva's arrival, many of the Netherlands, among whom was Prince William of Orange, fled to Holland. Count Egmont remained, and was treacherously put to death by order of the Duke of Alva.

6. Soon after his arrival in Brussels, with unlimited power, the Duke of Alva established a council, called by the Netherlands, "The Bloody Council," which inflicted the most severe and cruel punishments upon the Protestants, and also upon the Roman Catholics who opposed his tyranny and that of his master, the King of Spain. Disgusted with the condition of affairs, Margaret of Parma resigned the vice-regency of the Netherlands, and retired to Italy, followed by the respect of the Netherlands.

**The Bloody Council—
Tyranny of
the Duke of
Alva.**

7. The Northern Provinces of the Netherlands, in 1572, recognized Prince William of Orange as their ruler, with the title of Stadtholder; and the Synod of Dort, in 1573, recognized Calvinism as the established religion of the Netherlands, and erected a Protestant university at Leyden, as a reward for the gallant defense of the inhabitants of that town against a besieging Spanish army.

**Prince William of
Orange Stadtholder.**

8. After exercising the most cruel and unmitigated despotism in the Netherlands for six years, the Duke of Alva was finally recalled by the Spanish Court, in 1573, and was succeeded by Louis of Zuniga, who abolished the Bloody Council.

**The Duke of
Alva's Successors.**

and adopted moderate measures; but the Netherlanders, however, continued to resist Spanish authority. Louis of Zuniga died in 1576, and was succeeded by Don Juan, the victor of Lepanto, and the half-brother of the Spanish monarch.

9. In 1576, Prince William of Orange succeeded in uniting all the provinces of the Netherlands in a confederacy, known as "the Pacification of Ghent," for the purpose of expelling the Spanish troops, and securing the independence of the Netherlands. In 1578, Don Juan was recalled by the Court of Madrid, and Alexander Farnese of Parma, the son of Margaret, was appointed his successor. As Alexander endeavored to create a hatred between the Northern and Southern Provinces, for the purpose of preserving the latter to the Spanish crown, Prince William of Orange induced the Northern Provinces to unite, in 1579, in a close league, known as "the Union of Utrecht."

10. King Philip II. had long offered a reward and a title of nobility to any one who would hand over to him Prince William of Orange, dead or alive. This promise led to some attempts to seize or kill the prince, which, however, failed; but in 1581 William was assassinated in the royal banqueting hall at Delft, by the fanatical Gethard of Franche-Comte. The assassin was, however, seized, and put to a most cruel death.

11. Upon the assassination of Prince William of Orange, the Netherlanders chose his son, Prince Maurice of Orange, for their Stadtholder. Queen Elizabeth of England, the enemy of Philip II. of Spain, sent an army under the Earl of Leicester to the Netherlands, to prevent the Spaniards from suppressing the rebellion. This conduct of the English Queen, together with the execution of the Queen of Scots, induced the Spanish monarch to send a

The Pacification of Ghent—Union of Utrecht.

Assassination of Prince William of Orange.

Prince Maurice of Orange Stadtholder—English Aid to the Netherlanders.

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gigantic fleet, known as "the Invincible Armada," for the conquest of England. The destruction of the Armada, by storms and English war vessels, gave great moral support to the struggling Netherlanders.

12. The war between the Spanish government and the rebellious Netherlanders continued until 1609, when, through the mediation of the good King Henry IV. of France, the Northern Provinces of the Netherlands, or "the United States of Holland," secured their independence. **The Independence of Holland.** The Southern Provinces, or Belgium, under the name of "the Spanish Netherlands," continued to belong to the Spanish crown until 1714, when, by the Treaty of Rastadt, they were ceded to the House of Austria, under the name of "the Austrian Netherlands." The independence of Holland was formally acknowledged by Spain in 1648, by the Treaty of Westphalia, which closed the great Thirty Years' War in Germany.

13. The legislative power of the Republic of the United States of Holland was vested in an assembly called the States-General; and the executive power was exercised by a High Council, at the head of which was a Stadtholder. **Government of Holland.** No sooner was the independence of Holland secured, in 1609, than a religious dispute about the Calvinistic doctrine of predestination divided the Dutch people into two parties—the Gormarists, with Prince Maurice of Orange at their head, and the Arminians, at the head of whom was Van Olden Barnveldt, the author of the constitution of the Dutch Republic. The Synod of Dort, in 1618, decided in favor of the Gormarists, and Van Olden Barnveldt was executed.

14. Holland emerged from her long struggle for independence strong and prosperous. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602, and many of the Portuguese possessions in the East Indies were taken possession of by the Dutch. **Commerce, Colonies, and Maritime Power of Holland.** The Dutch colony of Batavia, in the Island of

Java, was founded in 1619. The Dutch navy was the largest in Europe; and for almost two centuries Holland was the most powerful commercial and maritime rival of England.

CHAPTER LXXXV.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY (*Continued*).—AGE OF PHILLIP II. AND ELIZABETH.

CIVIL AND RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE.

1. THE warlike Francis I., known as "the Father and Restorer of Letters," died in 1547, and was succeeded on the throne of France by his son, Henry II., who, like his father, was a zealous persecutor of the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called. The Protestants of France, as well as those of Holland, Scotland, and many in England, were believers in the doctrines of John Calvin, the French Reformer, who had adopted the doctrines of Ulric Zwingli. The Calvinists of France were called Huguenots; those of Scotland, Presbyterians; and those of England, Puritans.

2. Henry II. of France, as an ally of the Pope, engaged in a war against Philip II. of Spain and his wife, Queen Mary of England. The French were defeated by the united English and Spanish forces in the battle of St. Quentin, in Northern France, in 1557; but in the following year (1558,) Francis of Lorraine, Duke of Guise, with a French army, wrested Calais from the English, who had possessed that key of France for two centuries. In 1559 the peace of Chateau-Cambresis was made between the kings of France and Spain. Queen Mary of England, the wife of Philip II., having died, the Spanish king married the daughter of Henry II., while the French monarch married Catherine de Medicis, of the illustrious family of Florence.

**Accession of
Henry II.**

**War with
Spain and
England.**

Java, was founded in 1619. The Dutch navy was the largest in Europe; and for almost two centuries Holland was the most powerful commercial and maritime rival of England.

CHAPTER LXXXV.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY (*Continued*).—AGE OF PHILLIP II. AND ELIZABETH.

CIVIL AND RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE.

1. THE warlike Francis I., known as "the Father and Restorer of Letters," died in 1547, and was succeeded on the throne of France by his son, Henry II., who, like his father, was a zealous persecutor of the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called. The Protestants of France, as well as those of Holland, Scotland, and many in England, were believers in the doctrines of John Calvin, the French Reformer, who had adopted the doctrines of Ulric Zwingle. The Calvinists of France were called Huguenots; those of Scotland, Presbyterians; and those of England, Puritans.

2. Henry II. of France, as an ally of the Pope, engaged in a war against Philip II. of Spain and his wife, Queen Mary of England. The French were defeated by the united English and Spanish forces in the battle of St. Quentin, in Northern France, in 1557; but in the following year (1558,) Francis of Lorraine, Duke of Guise, with a French army, wrested Calais from the English, who had possessed that key of France for two centuries. In 1559 the peace of Chateau-Cambresis was made between the kings of France and Spain. Queen Mary of England, the wife of Philip II., having died, the Spanish king married the daughter of Henry II., while the French monarch married Catherine de Medici, of the illustrious family of Florence.

**Accession of
Henry II.**

**War with
Spain and
England.**

3. On the death of King Henry II., in 1559, from the effects of a wound which he received at a tournament, his son, Francis II., who had married the beautiful young Queen Mary of Scotland, ascended the throne of France. Mary's uncles, the Guises, who were zealous Roman Catholics, gained great influence at the French court, and endeavored to crush the Protestant party in France, headed by the Prince of Condé and Admiral Coligni. **Accession of Francis II.—The Guises.** King Francis II. died in 1560, when the Guises retired from court, and Queen Mary sailed for her kingdom of Scotland.

4. Francis II. was succeeded on the throne of France by his youthful half-brother, Charles IX., during whose minority the Government of France was conducted by his mother, Catharine de Medicis, as queen-regent. **Charles IX. and Catharine de Medicis.** Catharine granted toleration to the Huguenots in 1562. The Guises were indignant at this; and as Duke Francis of Guise and his followers were passing the town of Vassy, they fell upon and slaughtered a number of Huguenots engaged in prayer. This outrage was the signal for a bloody religious war, in which the most shocking cruelties were perpetrated by both parties. The Catholics were assisted by Philip II. of Spain and by the Pope, while the Huguenots received aid from Queen Elizabeth of England.

5. The Prince of Condé took the chief command of the Huguenots, while the Duke of Guise placed himself at the head of the Catholics. After the decisive battle of Dreux, the Duke of Guise laid siege to Orleans. **Battle of Dreux.** The assassination of Duke Francis of Guise by a Protestant saved Orleans to the Huguenots; and during the same year (1564), the peace of Amboise was made, by which the Calvinists were assured of toleration for their religion.

6. The promises of toleration to the Huguenots were soon forgotten; and in 1567, the religious war was re-

**Renewal of
the war—
Peace of St.
Germain.**

newed with all its horrors. The Catholics were victorious in the battle of St. Denis, but their leader, the Constable Montmorenci, was among the slain. After a few more sanguinary engagements, in which the Huguenots were defeated, and after their leader, the Prince of Condé, had been assassinated by a Catholic, the Peace of St. Germain was concluded, by which the Protestants were again promised religious toleration.

7. The leaders of the Protestants now were Admiral Coligni and Prince Henry of Bearn, the Prince of Condé's nephew. On the death of his mother, Henry of Bearn became king of Navarre. For the purpose

**The massacre
of St. Bar-
tholomew.**

of reconciling the two parties, the young King of France, Charles IX., proposed that his sister Margaret should be married to King Henry of Navarre. The French Catholics, with the Guises and the queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, at their head, had planned secretly to massacre all the Huguenots who should come to Paris for the celebration of the nuptials. Accordingly, at two o'clock in the morning of St. Bartholomew's day, August 24, 1572, when the alarm bell of St. Germain l'Auxerrois gave a signal, bands of armed assassins rushed upon the defenseless and unsuspecting Huguenots, and slaughtered them without mercy. The massacre continued for three days; and about 5,000 Protestants were killed in Paris, among whom was the aged Admiral Coligni. The king himself shot at the poor victims, from the windows of his palace. The young Prince of Condé and King Henry of Navarre were spared only on the condition of becoming Roman Catholics; but no sooner were they secure from the power of the papists than they again avowed their old faith. The orders of King Charles IX., for the extension of the massacre to other parts of France, were so well obeyed that 50,000 Protestants were sacrificed to the cruelty and fanaticism

of their Catholic enemies. Some of the Catholic commanders, however, refused to obey the orders of the king; and one of them wrote to the court that he commanded soldiers, not assassins. The French court was congratulated by Philip II. of Spain; and Pope Gregory XIII. offered thanks to Heaven for "this signal mercy." This horrible atrocity is known as "The Massacre of St. Bartholomew."

8. The consequences of the massacre of St. Bartholomew were quite different from what the French court had expected. Many of the Roman Catholics renounced their religion and became Huguenots, from a feeling of horror and shame; and the civil and religious war again burst forth with all its former fury.

9. Charles IX. at one time endeavored to put the whole responsibility for the great crime on the Guises; and the next moment he confessed the part he had taken, and expressed joy at what he considered a blow at heresy; but, from the time of the massacre, he was troubled with remorse and grief, at his participation in the horrible crime. He frequently imagined that he saw the bloody forms of the massacred Protestants before his eyes; he had no rest night or day; and he was often known to sigh and to bemoan himself with tears. His health rapidly declined, and his miserable life was terminated on the 30th of May, 1574.

10. Charles IX. was succeeded as king of France by his brother, Henry III., who had been, but a year previous, elected King of Poland, which country he now abandoned, to go to Paris, to take possession of a more delightful kingdom: Henry III. was an imbecile and a dissolute monarch. He made peace with the Huguenots, by granting them religious toleration and the same privileges

Consequences
of the Massacre.

Remorse and
sufferings of
King Charles
IX.

Accession of
Henry III.—
Duke Henry
of Guise and
the Catholic
League.

enjoyed by the Catholics. This exasperated the Catholic party, at the head of which was Duke Henry of Guise, who, with other French Catholic nobles, concluded "The Catholic League," for the purpose of upholding the popish religion in France.

11. King Henry III. soon declared himself the head of the Catholic League, and renounced his peace with the Huguenots. In 1584, the king's brother, the Duke of Anjou, the heir to the French throne, died, and the Protestant king, Henry of Navarre, became the nearest heir; but the Catholic party in France attempted to exclude him from the throne, on account of his religion; and Henry III. found himself obliged to revoke all his concessions to the Calvinists.

12. Duke Henry of Guise at first only aimed at the suppression of the Reformed religion in France, but he at length entertained the design of dethroning Henry III. and placing himself on the throne of France. The king now became alarmed, and ordered some Swiss troops into Paris, in May, 1588, to prevent the Guises from entering the city. The Parisians, however, adhered to the Guises, and began a terrible conflict with the king's troops. The king fled to Chartres, but soon returned to Paris, and procured the assassination of Duke Henry of Guise and his brother, Cardinal Louis of Guise.

13. The assassination of the Guises roused the indignation of the French Roman Catholics against King Henry III., and the Pope excommunicated him. The king found himself obliged to leave Paris; whereupon he threw himself into the arms of the Huguenots, and received assistance from King Henry of Navarre. A terrible civil war again broke out, and the two King Henrys appeared before Paris with their armies, and laid siege to the city. The capital was only saved

King Henry
III. and the
Catholic
League.

Plot of
Henry of
Guise.

Another Civil
War.

from destruction by the assassination of Henry III., in August, 1589, by James Clement, a fanatical monk.

14. Henry III. was the last French king of the House of Valois; and just before his death he appointed as his successor King Henry of Navarre, who was the first French monarch of the House of ^{Accession of} Henry IV. Bourbon. The Duke of Maine, a brother of the murdered Guises, became the head of the Catholic League; and supported by Philip II. of Spain, he resisted King Henry IV. In 1590, Henry IV. laid siege to Paris; and the Parisians were almost reduced by starvation, when a Spanish army under Alexander of Parma marched to their relief from the Netherlands.

15. On the approach of the Spanish army of relief, King Henry IV. relinquished the siege of Paris; but he continued the war against the Catholic League until 1593, when, for the sake of bringing ^{Conversion of Henry IV. to Catholicism.} peace to his subjects, he renounced Calvinism, and made a public profession of Roman Catholicism, in the Church of St. Denis, in Paris. The Parisians now hailed him with joy, the French nobles tendered him their submission, the Pope recalled the excommunication against him, and Philip II. of Spain made peace with him.

16. In 1598 King Henry IV. issued, at Nantes, an edict which secured to the Huguenots freedom of conscience, and equal rights and privileges with the Catholics. Henry IV. encouraged agricul- ^{Edict of Nantes—The Duke of Sully.} ture and commerce; and his faithful friend, the Duke of Sully, whom he appointed as his Prime Minister, arranged the economy of the state. Henry IV. was greatly beloved by his subjects. His mild and forgiving spirit made his worst enemies his best friends, and he proved to be one of the best kings that ever occupied a throne.

17. Henry IV. was desirous of having all Christian



nations united in a sort of union, with equal freedom for all Christian confessions. On the 14th of May, 1610, this good king was assassinated in his carriage, in the streets of Paris, by the fanatical Ravaillac, a Jesuit. The consternation and the public grief were universal throughout France, and never was the death of a king so lamented by his subjects. Henry's son, Louis XIII., became his successor.

Henry's
Project for a
Christian
Union.

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY—(Continued).*

ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND AND MARY OF SCOTLAND.

1. On the death of the bigoted Catholic queen Mary, in 1555, the crown of England fell to her half-sister, Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth was a Protestant; and upon her accession to the throne, she restored the Anglican Church, which had been overthrown by her Catholic predecessor. Elizabeth was regarded as the head of the Protestant party in Europe, while Philip II. of Spain was considered the champion of Roman Catholicism. Queen Elizabeth had an exalted idea of the royal prerogative, and she allowed the Parliament but very few privileges. She was vain and capricious, but these faults were overlooked by her gayety and cheerfulness. The English kingdom was very prosperous during her long reign; agriculture, commerce, and navigation were encouraged; and England never had a sovereign who swayed the sceptre with more ability than did this mighty queen.

2. Queen Elizabeth's vanity, and her jealousy of the superior qualities of others, led her to commit an act which has left an ineffaceable stain upon her character,—the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots. Mary, as we have already seen, had been sent

Mary, Queen
of Scots.

to France, at quite an early age, and married to the Dauphin, afterward King Francis II. of France. On the death of her husband, in 1560; Mary, although harshly treated by her mother-in-law, the wicked Catharine de Medicis, still for a time remained in France, which land she most dearly loved.

3. Finally the clamors of her Scotch subjects induced Mary to leave the delightful France, and to return, with great reluctance, to the wild country of the Scots, which she was then to govern. When ^{Mary's Return to Scotland.} Mary returned to Scotland, she found the Roman Catholic religion overthrown in that country, and Calvinism adopted in its stead. Mary was a strict Roman Catholic, and this was very distasteful to the Scotch Reformers, at the head of whom was the celebrated John Knox.

4. In 1565, Queen Mary, contrary to the advice of the Queen of England, married Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, who was a rigid Roman Catholic. This marriage was very displeasing to John Knox and ^{Mary's Marriage with Lord Darnley.} the other Scotch Reformers. As Mary was soon treated with neglect by her fickle husband, she bestowed her favor on her private secretary, David Rizzio, an Italian singer. This offended Darnley to such a degree that he formed a plot with some of the Scotch nobles; and the conspirators murdered Rizzio in the queen's presence, 1566.

5. The Scotch queen now burned with hatred against her husband, but she paid him a visit when he was taken sick. One night after this visit (February 10, ^{Murder of Lord Darnley.} 1567), the people of Edinburgh were awakened by a terrible explosion. Darnley's house had been blown up by gunpowder, and his lifeless body was found at a distance. The Scotch people fixed upon the Earl of Bothwell as the perpetrator of the horrible murder; and as Queen Mary married Bothwell three months after-

ward, she was believed to have been an accomplice in the crime.

6. Queen Mary's marriage with the Earl of Bothwell roused the indignation of the Scotch people, who in consequence rose in rebellion against her. Bothwell fled from Scotland, and lived by piracy, until he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, in which wretched condition he remained the last ten years of his life.

Rebellion of the Scotch people against Queen Mary.

7. Queen Mary was seized and imprisoned in a lonely castle in the island of Lochleven, by her rebellious subjects, who compelled her to resign her crown to her infant son, James VI., while her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was appointed regent during the minority of her son.

Imprisonment and De-thronement of Mary.

8. In 1568, Mary escaped from her prison, and raised an army to recover her lost authority; but after being defeated by the Earl of Murray, in a battle at Langside, she fled to England to seek the protection of Queen Elizabeth.

Mary's escape from prison.

9. Elizabeth, who was envious of the superior beauty and gracefulness of the Scotch queen, and who feared that she would make pretensions to the English crown, declined to receive Mary until she should have cleared herself of the accusation of having been an accomplice in the murder of her second husband, Lord Darnley. As Mary, as an independent sovereign, would not submit to a trial by an English tribunal, she was retained as a prisoner in England by order of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth's refusal to receive Mary.

10. The retention of Mary in England soon endangered the safety of Elizabeth's throne and life. Conspiracies for dethroning Elizabeth and placing Mary on the throne of England, were undertaken by the English Roman Catholics, of whom there were yet many in the northern part of the

Plot in favor of Mary—Execution of the Duke of Norfolk.

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kingdom. The Duke of Norfolk, the leading Catholic nobleman in England, was detected in such a plot, and was beheaded in consequence, a few years afterward. (1572.)

11. In 1569, a rebellion of the English Roman Catholics, headed by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, broke out against Elizabeth. The objects of the insurgents were the liberation of the Queen of Scots, and the restoration of the popish religion in England. The efforts of the rebels were unsuccessful and their leaders were tried, condemned, and punished by death.

Unsuccessful
rebellion of
the English
Roman
Catholics.

12. In 1586, a conspiracy was formed, by English Roman Catholics, to assassinate Elizabeth, and place Mary on the English throne. The leading conspirators were tried and executed. Mary was tried for being an accomplice in the plot, and was found guilty. Elizabeth appeared reluctant to consent to the execution of the unfortunate Mary, although she had long wished for her death. After waiting several months, the English queen signed the death-warrant, and her Prime Minister, Lord Burleigh, having obtained it from her private secretary, had it hastily executed; and the unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots, was beheaded on the 7th of February, 1587, after having been kept a prisoner in England for nineteen years. She died with firmness. In order to put the responsibility for Mary's execution on her servants, Queen Elizabeth affected great dissatisfaction at the haste with which the death-warrant had been carried into effect; and imprisoned her private secretary, Davison, for having handed the warrant to her Prime Minister.

Trial and ex-
ecution of
Mary by order
of Elizabeth.

13. The execution of the Queen of Scots aroused the indignation of the Roman Catholics throughout Europe; and Philip II. of Spain fitted out a fleet of 180 vessels, for the subjugation of England, France, and the Netherlands, at one blow,

Philip II. of
Spain and his
"Invincible
Armada."

and for the establishment of a powerful Roman Catholic empire in Western Europe. This gigantic Spanish fleet was named "the Invincible Armada," by the Catholics, who were confident of its success.

14. Elizabeth, undismayed by the coming storm, made extensive preparations for defense. She called out an army of 40,000 men, and placed it under the command of the Earl of Leicester, her favorite general; and the English fleets were placed under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham. Elizabeth, who displayed great firmness, appeared on horseback before her troops, and made them a short speech, which greatly raised their courage and zeal. Among other things she said, "I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too, and think proud scorn that Parma, or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realms, for which, rather than any dishonor come on me, I will take up arms myself."

15. The Invincible Armada, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidenia, sailed from Lisbon for the English Channel, in May, 1588. The English fleet under Effingham had just got out of port, when it beheld the Armada approach, in the form of a crescent, extending a distance of seven miles. The English sent a number of fire-ships into the midst of the Armada, destroying many vessels and disabling the whole fleet. The Spanish admiral then resolved to return home; and as the wind blew from the south, he was obliged to sail northward along the eastern shores of England, around Scotland, and down along the Western coast of Ireland. But most of the Spanish vessels which escaped the destructive effects of the English fire-ships, were wrecked off the coasts of Scotland, by a succession of the most furious storms, and very few of them returned to the shores of Spain.

**Destruction
of the Spanish
Armada.**

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16. The moral consequences of the destruction of the Invincible Armada were very great; it virtually secured the independence of Holland; it inspired the Huguenots in France with hope; and it raised the courage of the Protestants throughout Europe. From this time Spain rapidly declined in power and national greatness, and her naval superiority was broken; while England took her place as a great maritime power.

Consequences of the destruction of the Armada.

17. The wise Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was Elizabeth's Prime Minister during the first forty years of her reign. Queen Elizabeth was never married. Her first chief favorite was Robert Dudley, whom she created Earl of Leicester. At a later period, the accomplished Sir Walter Raleigh was received into the queen's favor. The Earl of Essex, Leicester's son-in-law, was Elizabeth's last favorite.

Elizabeth's favorites.

18. When Elizabeth attempted to firmly establish the religious laws of England in Ireland, a formidable rebellion of the Irish people, who were mostly papists, broke out, under the leadership of the Earl of Tyrone. The rebels were aided by the Pope and by Philip II. of Spain. The English queen appointed her favorite, the Earl of Essex, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; but instead of quelling the revolt, Essex made a treaty with the Earl of Tyrone.

Catholic Rebellion in Ireland.

19. Displeased with the conduct of her favorite, Elizabeth recalled him. Provoked at this, the Earl of Essex formed a plot with James VI. of Scotland to dethrone Elizabeth, and raised an insurrection against the queen. When the insurrection was suppressed, Essex was tried and executed. Elizabeth's grief for the death of her favorite, and the conviction that she had lost the affections of her subjects, caused her to bewail herself with tears, during the last moments of her life. She died in 1603, after appointing James VI. of Scotland, son of the ill-fated Mary, her successor.

Plot and Rebellion of the Earl of Essex.

CHAPTER LXXXVII.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR (A. D. 1618-1648).—CAUSES AND ORIGIN OF THE WAR.
—PALATINE PERIOD OF THE WAR—DANISH PERIOD OF THE WAR.

1. During the mild and equitable reigns of the Emperors Ferdinand I. (1556-1564) and Maximilian II. (1564-1576), the articles of the religious treaties of Passau and Augsburg were observed, and the German Protestants enjoyed perfect religious toleration; but when the careless and incompetent Rodolph II. occupied the imperial throne (1576-1612), the Catholic princes of Germany, such as the Archduke Ferdinand of Styria and the elector Maximilian of Bavaria, violated the religious rights and privileges of their Protestant subjects in various ways; while the complaints of the Protestants were unheeded by the weak and negligent Emperor.

**Violation of
the Rights of
the German
Protestants.**

2. In order to secure their religious privileges against the encroachment of the Catholic power, the Protestant princes of Germany concluded an alliance known as "the Protestant Union." To oppose this Union, the Catholic German princes entered into a compact called "the Catholic League." Thus Germany was divided into two hostile religious parties. The Protestant Union secured the aid of Henry IV. of France, and the Dutch Republic, while the Catholic League obtained the assistance of Philip II. of Spain. The first occasion for hostilities between the two parties, was a dispute between the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count Palatine of Neuburg, for the hereditary possessions of the deceased Duke of Cleves and Berg. After a bloody war of several years, it was agreed that the Elector of Brandenburg should have Cleves, while the Count of Neuburg should receive Berg and Dusseldorf.

**The Protestant
Union
and the Cath-
olic League.**

3. In consequence of the weakness and negligence of

the Emperor Rodolph II., his relatives compelled him to relinquish Austria and Hungary to his brother Matthias. For a while Rodolph secured to himself the respect and support of the Bohemians, by granting them letters-patent which accorded great religious privileges to the Protestants; but at length he was also compelled to surrender the crown of Bohemia to Matthias, so that the only crown which he still possessed was that of the German Empire. The miserable existence and imbecile reign of Rodolph were ended by his death, in 1612; and his brother Matthias succeeded him on the imperial throne of Germany.

**The Emperor
Rodolph II.
Deprived of
his Hereditary
Dominions.**

4. No sooner had Matthias become emperor of Germany, than he showed himself as incapable of governing as Rodolph, and he soon convinced the German Protestants that they could not expect much favor from him. The Protestants of Bohemia were greatly alarmed for the security of their religious liberties when the Emperor Matthias caused his cousin, Duke Ferdinand of Carinthia, to be invested with the crown of Bohemia. At length, in accordance with an imperial decree, a Protestant church which had been erected in the small town of Clostergrab was destroyed, and another which had been built in the territory of the Abbot of Brannau was closed. The Protestant states of Germany, regarding this as an infraction of the letters-patent, held a meeting in Prague, and presented a remonstrance to the emperor, who, in his reply, sharply reproved those who had made the complaint, and confirmed the decree prohibiting the building of Protestant churches on ecclesiastical territory. Enraged at this, the Protestant deputies armed themselves, and, with Count Thurn at their head, proceeded to the council-house of Prague with the design of attacking the imperial council, whom they blamed for issuing the harsh decree.

**Ferdinand,
King of
Bohemia.**

After a short dispute, the two Catholic councilors, Martinitz and Slawata, were seized and thrown out of the castle window, more than fifty-six feet, by the enraged Protestant deputies. Notwithstanding the height of their fall, and the shots that were fired after them, both councilors escaped with their lives. The Bohemians established a council of thirty noblemen to govern them, and raised an army, at the head of which they placed Count Thurn. With the aid of the heroic Ernest von Mansfeld, Count Thurn defeated the imperial troops in Bohemia, after which he appeared with his army before Vienna, and made Matthias tremble in his capital.

5. In 1619, the Emperor Matthias died, and his bigoted cousin, Ferdinand of Carinthia, was chosen Emperor of Germany, by the Electoral Princes at Frankfurt; but the Bohemians refused to acknowledge him as emperor, and chose as king of

**Frederic V.
of the Palatinate.**

Bohemia in his stead the Elector Frederic V. of the Palatinate, the head of the Protestant Union, and son-in-law of King James I. of England. Frederic, weak and incompetent, proved himself unfitted for so momentous a crisis.

6. The energetic Emperor Ferdinand II. concluded an alliance with the powerful Elector Maximilian of Bavaria, head of the Catholic League. Maximilian's great general, Tilly the Netherlander, marched into Bohemia and defeated Frederic of the Palatinate in the battle of Weissenberg, near Prague. Frederic, after his defeat, fled in the utmost consternation into the Netherlands, being outlawed and deprived of his hereditary dominions; and Bohemia and Moravia soon submitted to the power of Austria.

**Alliance of
Ferdinand II.
with
Maximilian
of Bavaria.**

7. The unfortunate Bohemians were now cruelly punished for their rebellion. Twenty-seven of the Bohemian nobles were executed; the property of the others was confiscated and bestowed on the Jesuits and other Catholic orders; the

**Dreadful
punishment
of the Bohemians.**

Protestant clergymen were gradually banished from Bohemia; and finally it was declared that no subject who would not conform to the Catholic creed would be tolerated, in consequence of which harsh measure, 30,000 Protestant families left their homes in Bohemia, and took up their abode in the Protestant states of Saxony, Hanover, and Brandenburg.

8. Ernest von Mansfeld, Duke Christian of Brunswick, and the Margrave George Frederic of Baden-Durlach, took the field in the cause of the outlawed Frederic of the Palatinate, and of the Protestant religion. Mansfeld plundered Alsace and desolated the Catholic bishoprics and monasteries on the Rhine, and, in conjunction with George Frederic of Baden-Durlach, gained the battle of Wiesloch, in April, 1622, over the Bavarian general Tilly, who had been sent into the Palatinate of the Rhine, for the purpose of subduing the chief of the Protestant Union; but George Frederic was soon afterward defeated by Tilly, in the battle of Wimpfen (May 8, 1622); and, on the 20th of June of the same year, Christian of Brunswick was also defeated by Tilly. Mansfeld and Christian then marched into the Netherlands, to procure assistance from England, while Tilly took Mannheim and Heidelberg by storm, and committed the most frightful ravages.

The war on
the Rhine.

9. In 1623, the Electorship of the Palatinate was bestowed on Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, through the influence of his ally, the Emperor Ferdinand II. This proceeding, and the evident intention of Ferdinand to attempt the suppression of Protestantism, blasted the hopes for a speedy termination of the destructive civil and religious war.

Duke Maxi-
milian of
Bavaria
crowned
Elector-Pala-
tinate.

10. England, Holland, and Denmark now lent their assistance to the Protestant cause in Germany; and the

Foreign aid to the German Protestants.

Protestant towns of Lower Saxony took up arms in defence of their religion, and formed an alliance with King Christian IV. of Denmark, whom they invested with the chief command of their armies. Those valiant Protestant leaders, Ernest von Mansfeld, Christian of Brunswick, and George Fred-eric of Baden-Durlach, again appeared in the field.

11. Thus far the war against the German Protestants had been carried on almost entirely by the Catholic

Albert of Wallenstein.

League; but as the struggle had assumed greater proportions, the League demanded supplies of troops from the emperor. Ferdinand himself, who was jealous of the power and influence of Maximilian of Bavaria, resolved to raise an army of his own. Albert of Wallenstein, a Bohemian nobleman, offered to furnish and support an army of 50,000 men, at his own expense, for the emperor, on condition of being allowed the unlimited command of them. Ferdinand accepted the offer of the daring adventurer, made him governor of Friedland, elevated him to the dignity of an Elector of the German Empire, and afterward created him Duke of Friedland.

12. Northern Germany now became the chief theatre of the war, and the army of the Catholic League under

Defeats of the Protestants in Northern Germany.

Tilly, and that of the emperor under Wallenstein, soon broke the power of the Protestants in that quarter. Mansfeld, after being defeated by Wallenstein at the bridge of Dessau, marched into Hungary, and died in Bosniâ, while attempting to make his way to the Netherlands. (1626.) Christian of Brunswick died the same year; and King Christian IV., of Denmark, having been defeated by Tilly, at the castle of Lutter, near Barenberg, in Hanover, on the 27th of August, 1626, was compelled to retreat into his own dominions; and the Duke of Mecklenburg was driven from his territories, which were immediately seized by Wallenstein.

13. In 1627, Schleswig, Holstein, and the peninsula of Jutland were conquered and frightfully ravaged, by the Catholic armies of Germany under Tilly and Wallenstein; and the King of Denmark was obliged to seek refuge in his islands. The Protestant German States of Pomerania and Brandenburg also submitted to the Catholic power; and the whole North of Germany lay prostrate before the power of the Emperor and the Catholic League.

*Subjugation
of Denmark
and Northern
Germany.*

14. The heroic inhabitants of the city of Stralsund, in Pomerania, however, refused to submit, and resolved to resist the imperial army to the last extremity. Wallenstein marched against the city, and swore that he would take it if it were bound to heaven with chains; but all his assaults were gallantly repulsed by the inhabitants; and after a siege of ten weeks, during which he lost 12,000 men, Wallenstein was obliged to relinquish the siege and to retire.

*Defence of
Stralsund.*

15. The failure of Wallenstein to take Stralsund induced the Emperor of Germany to conclude a treaty of peace with the King of Denmark. By the Peace of Lubec, concluded in 1629, Christian IV. recovered the territories which had been conquered from him; but he was required to abandon the cause of the German Protestants.

*Peace of
Lubec.*

16. The Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic party, encouraged by their recent triumph, now resolved upon the suppression of the Protestant religion, and the full reestablishment of Roman Catholicism throughout Germany; and, instigated by the Society of the Jesuits, the emperor issued an "Edict of Restitution," which required the Protestants to restore all ecclesiastical property which had been taken from the Catholics since the Peace of Passau. The execution of this edict would deprive many of the Protestant German princes of their wealth, and was therefore vio-

*Edict of
restitution.*

lently resisted; and the emperor found himself obliged to employ military force to carry out his designs, but his army was no longer commanded by Wallenstein.

17. Wallenstein's barbarous conduct in spreading ruin and desolation wherever he appeared, aroused the indignation of both Catholics and Protestants, and the whole body of the German princes, with Duke Maximilian of Bavaria at their head, demanded the removal of Wallenstein from the chief command of the imperial army. The emperor yielded to the unanimous voice of the princes and people of Germany, and removed Wallenstein and appointed Tilly to the chief command of his army. Wallenstein retired to his Duchy of Friedland, where he lived in the enjoyment of immense wealth, until he should again be called upon to assume the chief command of the imperial army.

18. The unfortunate Protestants of Germany were now compelled to yield before the superior power of Austria and Bavaria; but they soon found a deliverer in the valiant Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, whom the intriguing and unprincipled French Prime-Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, the enemy of the House of Hapsburg, had induced to assist the German Protestants in their war against the emperor.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—(*Continued.*)

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR.—SWEDISH PERIOD OF THE WAR.—FRENCH PERIOD OF THE WAR.

1. On the 24th of June, 1630, Gustavus Adolphus, with only 6,000 men, landed on the coast of Pomerania. The Swedish soldiers, who assembled around their chaplains twice a day, were not permitted by their pious king to devastate any

**Appearance
of Gustavus
Adolphus in
Germany.**

of the territory through which they marched. Many of the Protestant princes of Germany, fearing the vengeance of their emperor, and jealous of the foreign monarch who had espoused their cause, at first refused to coöperate with the king of Sweden; but their fear and jealousy were soon overcome, and in their distress they concluded alliances with Gustavus.

2. On the 16th of May, 1631, the Protestant city of Magdeburg, which had opposed the Edict of Restitution, fell into the hands of the imperial army under Tilly, after a siege of six weeks, during which many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed. The devoted city was fearfully punished. The greater part of it was burned to the ground; and 30,000 of its inhabitants were brutally massacred to gratify the victorious Tilly's thirst for revenge.

*Destruction
of Magde-
burg.*

3. After the barbarous destruction of Magdeburg, Tilly, with the imperial army, marched against the elector of Saxony, who in his distress, concluded an alliance with Gustavus Adolphus. The king of Sweden marched to meet Tilly; and on the 7th of September, 1631, at the village of Breitenfeld, near Leipais, was fought a sanguinary battle, in which the united forces of the Swedes and the Saxons gained a most brilliant victory.

*Battle of
Breitenfeld
and Leipais.*

4. After his great victory at Breitenfeld, Gustavus Adolphus marched victoriously to the Rhine; and the whole North and West of Germany were soon in the possession of the Swedes and their Protestant German allies. In the spring of 1632, the king of Sweden turned eastward, for the purpose of invading Bavaria, and chastising the powerful Elector Maximilian. Tilly, who was at the head of a powerful imperial army, had strongly intrenched himself on the river Lech, for the purpose of disputing the passage of that stream by the Swedes. The Swedes

*Victorious
march of
Gustavus
Adolphus in
Germany.*

stormed the intrenchments of the imperialists, and forced a passage across the river. Tilly was so severely wounded by a canon ball that he died at Ingolstadt, several weeks afterward. This old war-worn hero directed military affairs until the moment of his death.

5. After occupying Augsburg, where the Protestant form of worship was again established, Gustavus Adolphus advanced into Bavaria and entered Munich, which had been abandoned by Maximilian, at the approach of the Swedish monarch. In this moment of peril, the Emperor Ferdinand II. again had recourse to the services of Wallenstein, who agreed to raise a new army, on condition of being allowed the unlimited command of it.

6. Wallenstein was soon at the head of 40,000 men; and after driving the Saxons out of Bohemia, he marched against the victorious Gustavus Adolphus, who had strongly intrenched himself near Nuremberg. Wallenstein, at the head of 60,000 imperialists, fortified himself opposite the position of the Swedes, and for several months the two armies were watching each other. During this blockade of Nuremberg, both armies suffered dreadfully from hunger. At length Gustavus Adolphus stormed the camp of Wallenstein, but was repulsed with heavy loss.

7. From Nuremberg, the German imperial army under Wallenstein marched into Saxony, whither it was followed by the Swedes under Gustavus Adolphus. The two armies met at Lutzen, where, on the 16th of November, 1632, a memorable battle was fought. The Swedes gained a glorious victory, but this was dearly purchased with the death of the heroic and valiant Gustavus Adolphus. Pappenheim, the leader of the imperial German cavalry, was also mortally wounded, and Wallenstein fled in dismay into Bohemia, with his defeated and shattered army. The Swedes

**Restoration
of Wallen-
stein.**

**Blockade of
Nuremberg.**

**Battle of
Lutzen, and
death of
Gustavus
Adolphus.**

sent the body of their illustrious king, which was frightfully disfigured by the hoofs of horses, to his native land for interment.

8. After the death of Gustavus Adolphus, the Swedish Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern, resolved to continue the war in Germany with vigor, and concluded the alliance of Heilborn with the Protestant princes of Germany. After the death of their valiant king, the Swedes committed the most savage devastations, while Wallenstein was frightfully ravaging Bohemia.

**Alliance of
Heilborn.**

9. Wallenstein was now accused by his enemies of treason to the emperor and the Catholic religion. He was charged with the design of forming an alliance with the Swedes and the German Protestants, and of making himself king of Bohemia. When the emperor had secured the persons of the adherents of the powerful general, and declared his deposition. Wallenstein immediately took up his march to join the Swedes; but before he could unite his forces with the Swedish army, he was murdered by a band of assassins, with the Irishman Butler at their head, sent for that purpose by the Emperor Ferdinand II. Wallenstein's faithful adherents and confederates, Illo, Terska, and Kinsky, were also assassinated. The assassins were rewarded with honors, dignities, and wealth.

**Assassina-
tion of Wal-
lenstein.**

10. Soon after the assassination of Wallenstein, the German imperial army advanced into Bavaria, and defeated Bernhard of Weimar in the battle of Nordlingen, September, 1634. In May the following year, 1635, several of the Protestant German princes concluded the Peace of Prague with the Emperor Ferdinand II.; but still the bloody war continued, and Cardinal Richelieu, who at that time wielded the destinies of France, thinking the opportunity favorable for humbling the proud House of Austria, and extending

**Battle of
Nordlingen.**

the Eastern frontier of France to the Rhine, now began to take an active part in the struggle, and sent French armies into Germany, to aid Bernhard of Weimar and the Swedes.

11. The Emperor Ferdinand II. died in 1637, without seeing the end of the civil and religious war in which he

Death of Ferdinand II.

had been engaged from the commencement of his reign; and was succeeded on the imperial throne of Germany by his son, Ferdinand III.

Bernhard of Weimar, after making important conquests on the Rhine, and the Swedish general Banner, after ravaging Bohemia, did not long survive Ferdinand II. On the death of Banner, the command of the Swedish army in Germany was assigned to Torstenson, who gained brilliant victories over the imperial forces at Leipsic and the hill Tabor, and even threatened Vienna with a siege; but, on account of illness from the gout, Torstenson was finally obliged to relinquish his command to Wrangel, an able general. Wrangel and the French general Turenne marched into Bavaria, and compelled the Elector Maximilian to flee from his dominions; but while they were preparing to invade Bohemia, they received intelligence of the Peace of Westphalia; and hostilities were suspended.

12. After five years of negotiation at Munster and Osnaburg, the Peace of Westphalia was concluded in October, 1648, to the great joy of the German

Peace of Westphalia.

people, who had long clamored for the termination of the war. By this treaty a part of the German territory on the Rhine was ceded to France; the island of Rugen and a portion of Pomerania were surrendered to Sweden; another portion of Pomerania was given up to the Great-Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg; Lusatia was allotted to the elector of Saxony; the Upper Palatinate was bestowed on the Elector of Bavaria; and Switzerland and Holland were acknowl-

edged as independent republics, the former by Germany, and the latter by Spain. The religious treaties of Passau and Augsburg were confirmed; and the privileges of free religious worship, and equal civil rights with the Catholics, were secured to the Protestants of Germany.

18. During the continuance of the Thirty Years' War, two-thirds of the German population perished by the sword, famine, pestilence, and other causes. The resources of Germany were exhausted, and her territory at the close of the war appeared almost like a desert waste. Cities, towns, and villages had been laid in ashes; agriculture, manufactures, and commerce had been neglected; and much of the former prosperity of Germany had passed away. Peace therefore came none too soon for the unfortunate land.

14. Gustavus Adolphus was succeeded on the throne of Sweden by his daughter Christina, during whose minority the government was conducted by a senate. Christina, who assumed the government in 1644, surrounded herself with the society of literary men; and her taste for art and her love for science induced her to abdicate her throne ten years after attaining her majority. She then embraced Roman Catholicism, and passed the remainder of her life in Rome. Christina's successor on the Swedish throne, Charles X. (1654-1660), was a great warrior, and famous for his victories over the Poles and the Danes. Charles XI. (1660-1697) broke the power of the Swedish aristocracy.

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION.—ENGLAND UNDER THE HOUSE OF STUART.

1. ON the death of Queen Elizabeth, in 1603, James Stuart, King of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, ascended the throne of England. From the

Accession of James I. At the time of his mother's fall, he had reigned over Scotland, with the title of James VI., but now he became James I. of England. Thenceforth the crowns of England and Scotland were united, but each kingdom had its own parliament until 1707, when a legislative union took place. During the reign of James I. the English colonies of Jamestown and Plymouth, in North America, were planted.

2. James I. was a vain, bigoted, and pedantic prince. He was in the possession of much theological learning, and delighted to engage in controversies on religious subjects. **Vanity and bigotry of James I.** He loved to make a display of his wisdom and knowledge in lengthy harangues. James was also ambitious of the reputation of being a great author, and he wrote many books.

3. James I. lacked the shrewdness and decision essential in a sovereign. He was so extreme a lover of peace as to sacrifice the honor and dignity of his kingdom, for the sake of living on friendly terms with foreign governments. **Peaceful disposition of James I.** One of the faults of James was his lavishness of favors to unworthy persons. Of these, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, had the greatest influence.

4. James I. was a firm believer in "the divine right of kings." He believed that his authority was directly derived from God, and that his power was unlimited. **James's idea of "the Divine Right of kings."** For this reason he hated the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, which made the king only a common member of the congregation; but he was zealously attached to the Episcopal Church of England, in which the monarch was considered the head and origin of all spiritual power; and the great object of James was the suppression of Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, and the full establishment of Episcopacy as the only form of religion throughout his dominions.

5. The quiet of King James' reign, was soon disturbed by a conspiracy to place Lady Arabella Stuart, his first cousin, on the throne of England; but the design of the conspirators was easily frustrated. Conspiracy in favor of Lady Arabella Stuart. Sir Walter Raleigh, who was accused of complicity in the plot in favor of Lady Arabella, was held in imprisonment for thirteen years, during which he wrote his "History of the World." After his release, Raleigh conducted an English gold-searching expedition to South America. Raleigh attacked and captured a small Spanish town, although a state of peace existed between England and Spain. In order to appease the clamors of the Spanish Government, King James resolved to sacrifice Raleigh; and on the 29th of October, 1618, that distinguished personage was beheaded. This cruel act is an indelible stain upon the character of James I.; and at the time made him exceedingly unpopular.

6. No sooner was James I. seated on the English throne, than he forgot his promises of toleration to the English Roman Catholics, and followed the example of Queen Elizabeth in making them pay an oppressive capitation tax, that he might enrich his favorites, and defray the expenses of his court festivals. The Gunpowder Plot. This aroused the indignation of the Catholics, some of whom resolved upon a conspiracy to blow up the Parliament House with gunpowder, at a time when the King, the Lords, and the Commons would be assembled there, and thus destroy the whole government of England. At length the plot was discovered, and the leading conspirator, Guy Fawkes, was detected in a cellar in which thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were concealed. Guy Fawkes was seized and executed, and his fellow conspirators perished in an insurrection which they had excited. This conspiracy took place in 1605, and is known as "The Gunpowder Plot." In consequence of it, the En-

glish Catholics were heavily fined, and compelled to take an oath of fidelity to the monarch.

7. James I. was anxious that his son Charles, heir to the throne, should marry a daughter of the King of Spain.

Nuptial Expedition of Prince Charles into Spain. The English people were opposed to such a marriage; but the Duke of Buckingham warmly advocated it. Buckingham and Prince Charles

undertook a month's journey into Spain to see the princess. When they arrived at Madrid, they were treated with respect by the Spanish king, Philip III.; but Buckingham's insolent conduct offended the haughty Spaniards, and thus prevented the marriage. Prince Charles afterwards married Henrietta Maria, daughter of the murdered Henry IV. of France.

8. James I., as we have already said, was a firm believer in the divine right of kings. He was extremely jealous of any encroachments on the royal prerogative.

Disputes between King James I. and his Parliament. During the reigns of the sovereigns of the House of Tudor, the English Parliament possessed but little liberty, and the monarch wielded almost absolute power. This unlimited power, James I. was resolved to preserve and extend; and he was consequently involved in a continual contest with the Parliament, which was determined to assert its own rights, and to uphold the liberties of the English people. Parliaments were repeatedly dissolved, but the next were always sure to be more obstinate than their predecessors. At length, when the king declared that what the Parliament regarded as its rights were but privileges for the enjoyment of which they were indebted to his majesty's favor, the Commons registered a protest, in which they asserted that the enactment of laws, the assent to taxes, and the rights and privileges of Parliament, were inherent rights of every Englishman. Exasperated at this bold declaration, the king tore with his own hand from the record the leaf on which was written the protest, dissolved

the Parliament, and ordered the imprisonment of several of the members; but the Parliament displayed a bolder attitude under his successor.

James I. died in 1625, and was succeeded on the English throne by his son, Charles I. No sooner was Charles I. seated on the throne, than a vehement dispute arose between him and the Parliament, and that body was consequently dissolved during the first and second years of his reign. The assistance given to the Elector

**Difficulties
between
King Charles
I. and the
Parliament.**

Frederic V. of the Palatinate and the German Protestants in the Thirty Years' War, and the useless war with France, brought about by the Duke of Buckingham, still Prime-Minister of England, produced heavy expenses; and the king was irritated that the Parliament refused to vote supplies as freely as he desired.

10. When the war with France resulted unfavorably for the English, the third Parliament summoned by Charles I. was disposed to impeach the Duke of Buckingham. In order to save his favorite minister, Charles found himself obliged to acknowledge the validity of "the Petition of Right," presented to his majesty by both Houses of Parliament, and consequently to restore to the Parliament its former privileges, and freedom of speech and inviolability of person and property of its members.

**Petition of
Right.**

11. Soon after the presentation of the Petition of Right, the Duke of Buckingham was assassinated, whereupon the king appointed Thomas Wentworth, one of the leaders of the popular party, to the head of the Ministry, and created him Earl of Strafford and governor of Ireland. From this time Wentworth was an avowed opponent of the principles of liberty which he formerly advocated; and, with the view of increasing royal power, he advised the king to govern for some time without a Parliament.

**Thomas
Wentworth,
Earl of Strafford,
Prime
Minister.**

12. For the purpose of obtaining money to defray the expenses of the Government, the king now had recourse to the most arbitrary and unjust expedients. **Illegal Measures of the King to obtain Money.** Heavy fines were imposed for the most trifling offenses, and heavy duties were levied upon various articles. Charles I. also imposed a tax called "ship-money," because it was used for the support of the navy. These illegal measures of the king aroused the indignation of the English people.

13. Charles I. also attempted to establish the Episcopal Church on a firmer basis, and to suppress Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, with the view of checking the rapid growth of republican principles among the English people. For the purpose of accomplishing this end, the king appointed the zealous Bishop Laud, of London, Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud caused the Cathedral of St. Paul's, in London, to be consecrated anew, and the churches to be supplied with numerous images and ornaments, and imposed upon the Puritans ceremonies and observances hitherto unpracticed by the Church of England. The new Archbishop also removed the Puritan preachers from their offices, and invested arbitrary tribunals, such as the Courts of the Star Chamber and High Commission, with the authority of pronouncing severe punishments against those who manifested any opposition to established institutions. Thus Prynne, a Puritan, was sentenced to lose both his ears, and to be imprisoned for life, for writing a volume against dancing, masks, theatrical plays, and other amusements in which the court delighted.

14. The proceedings just mentioned endangered civil and religious liberty in England, and threw the whole kingdom into a ferment. The resolute John Hampden refused to pay any ship-money, and was consequently tried in the Exchequer Chamber, in the presence of all the Judges of England.

Trial of John Hampden.

The Judges decided in favor of the crown, but Hampden was more than compensated for the loss of his cause by the applause of his countrymen.

15. The Puritan preachers who had lost their offices travelled through the country, denouncing the arbitrary measures of Laud as preliminary steps to the reestablishment of popery in England; and by their passionate appeals, they excited the people against the king, the archbishop, and the clergy.

**The Puritan
Preachers.**

16. While the royal assumptions were thus violently opposed in England, the attempts of the king to establish the Episcopal form of worship in Scotland produced a formidable rebellion in that country, in 1637. The first attempt to worship according to the Episcopal form in the Cathedral of Edinburgh caused a violent tumult. The Episcopal priest was driven from the cathedral, amid the cries of "Pope!" "Antichrist!" "Stone him!"

**The Scotch
Covenant—
Scotch Rebel-
lion.**

The Scotch people immediately entered into a solemn league, or "Covenant," for the protection of their Presbyterian form of worship, drove away the Episcopal bishops, and took up arms. The king, resolving to crush all opposition by force, sent an army against the Scotch insurgents; but his troops were overcome by the zealous Scots, who went forth to battle with prayer. The victorious Scots marched into England, and the king found himself obliged to summon another Parliament, after an interval of eleven years, to solicit aid against the Scotch rebels.

17. The Parliament just summoned, instead of voting supplies against the rebellious Scots, began to attack the unlawful assumptions of the king, and to discuss the grievances of the English people. In a fit of exasperation, Charles I. dissolved this Parliament; but his necessities obliged him to call another. The Parliament which now assembled is known as "The Long Parliament," on account of the extraordinary length

**The Long
Parliament.**

of its existence. Its leading members were Sir ~~Haslerig~~ Haslerig, John Hampden, John Pym, and Oliver Cromwell, who were opposed to absolute monarchical power and Episcopal church government, and who were strong advocates of republican principles.

18. Instead of affording the king any assistance against the Scotch insurgents, the Long Parliament formed a secret league with them. The Parliament next **Trial and execution of Strafford.** impeached the Earl of Strafford for high treason. The king vainly endeavored to save his favorite minister. The Commons were resolved upon his destruction. After a trial of seventy days, and a dignified and eloquent defence, Strafford was declared guilty and condemned to death. In a moment of weakness, the king signed the death-warrant, and the unfortunate Stafford was beheaded. He died with firmness and resolution. Archbishop Laud was also impeached and tried, for endeavoring to destroy the liberties of the people of England. He was declared guilty, imprisoned, and three years afterwards beheaded. The Courts of High Commission and the Star Chamber were now dissolved, and the Episcopal bishops were excluded from their seats in the House of Lords.

19. A dangerous rebellion broke out in Ireland in 1641, and the Protestant settlers in that country were massacred by the Catholic Irish. **Irish Rebellion.** The Parliament accused the court, and particularly the queen, of instigating the rebellion and the massacre, and declared that the Catholic and Episcopal bishops and the court had entered into a plot for the destruction of religion and liberty in England.

20. At length, Charles I., exasperated at the increasing demands of the Parliament, ordered five of its boldest speakers,—Haslerig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym, and Strode,—to be arrested, and went in person to the hall of the House of Commons to

Rash Act of the King.

seize them. For this rash act, the king afterwards found himself obliged to apologize in a humiliating message to the Parliament.

21. From this time the Parliament encroached more and more on the royal prerogative, until scarcely a vestige of monarchical power remained. The Commons now demanded that the appointment of ^{Parliamentary encroachments on the Royal Prerogative.} ministers of state, and of military and naval commanders, should depend upon their approval. The commons also required that the Tower of London, several of the sea-ports, and the management of the navy, should also be given into their possession. When the Parliament demanded that the king should relinquish the command of the army for a certain period, his majesty angrily replied, "No, not for one hour!" This refusal dispelled all hopes for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and both parties resolved upon an appeal to arms.

22. The opponents of the king were divided into several parties. The Independents, who were Puritans in religious belief and republicans in political ^{Presbyterianism} faith, aimed at the overthrow of the monarchy; ^{and Independents.} While the Presbyterians, or moderate party, merely wished to put an end to the abuses of the royal power, but not to deprive the king of his crown.

23. The breach between King Charles I. and the Parliament continually widened; and in 1642, the king withdrew from London and retired to York, where he declared war against the Parliament. On ^{The King's withdrawal from London.} the 25th of August, 1642, Charles erected the royal standard at Nottingham, but it was soon blown down by the violence of the wind. A civil war of six years now commenced, in which England was drenched with the blood of her own people.

24. On the side of the king were the nobility, the Roman Catholic and Episcopal clergy, and all the advo-

"Cavaliers," oates of the established Church, and of absolute and "Round-head" monarchy. The whole of the king's party

were called "Cavaliers." On the side of the Parliament were the Puritans, all who advocated a reform in Church and State, and all believers in republican principles. All the adherents of the Parliament received from their enemies the nickname of "Roundheads," because their hair was cropped close to their heads.

25. During the first and second years of the war, the king's forces, commanded by his nephew, Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, and the Marquis of Newcastle, were victorious in almost every encounter with the undisciplined forces of the

**Battle of
Edge Hill.**

Parliament, commanded by Lord Fairfax and the Earl of Essex, the latter of whom was the son of Queen Elizabeth's favorite. The first great battle of the civil war was fought at Edge Hill, in Warwickshire, on the 3d of October, 1642. The king's army was commanded by Prince Rupert, and the Parliamentary forces by the Earl of Essex. Both sides lost about 5,000 men killed, and neither gained the victory.

26. The campaign of 1643 was favorable to the royal cause. The Parliamentary forces were defeated at Stratton Hill, in Cornwall; at Roundway Down; and at Chalgrove Field. Bristol was besieged and taken by the Royalists, who also gained

**Royalist Vic-
tories in 1643**

a victory in the battle of Newbury. During the year 1643, the Parliamentary party experienced a severe loss in the death of the brave, illustrious, and upright John Hampden, who was killed in a skirmish with Prince Rupert. The Royalists now secured the aid of some Irish Roman Catholics, while the Parliament entered into a solemn league, or "Covenant," with the Scotch Presbyterians, who sent an army of 14,000 men into the field against King Charles I.

27. The tide of success was now turning in favor of

the Parliamentary side, whose troops had been greatly benefited by the experience of the first two years of the war. The resolute and enthusiastic Puritan, Oliver Cromwell, now began to take a conspicuous part in the contest. At the head of a hardy and pious squadron of cavalry which he had organized, he took the field in the cause of God and liberty.

28. The first great Parliamentary victory was gained at Marston Moor, about nine miles from York, on the 3d of July, 1644, by Cromwell and his "Ironsides," as the sturdy squadron of cavalry which he commanded was called. The defeat of the royal army was partly due to the impetuosity of Prince Rupert. The whole of Rupert's artillery fell into the hands of Cromwell's victorious troops. The consequence of the battle of Marston Moor was that the whole North of England fell into the possession of the Parliamentarians. Soon afterward occurred the second battle of Newbury, in which neither party was victorious.

29. The Puritans now banished the Book of Common Prayer from religious worship, and substituted the Calvinistic form of worship and church government for the Episcopal. They also caused images and ornaments to be taken from the churches, and forbade festivities. But the Puritans were divided into two great parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents—between whom the greatest animosity already prevailed. The Presbyterians, or moderate Puritans, inclined toward the support of monarchical and aristocratic institutions, and longed for the establishment of their Church, to the exclusion of all others, and opposed toleration. The Independents, or radical Puritans, held democratic or republican views in regard to civil government, and desired toleration for all Christian faiths.

30. Oliver Cromwell belonged to the Independents; while the Earl of Essex, who held the chief command of

The self-denying ordinance.

the Parliamentary forces, belonged to the Presbyterians. The Independents caused the enactment, by Parliament, of the Self-denying Ordinance, which allowed no member of Parliament to hold a command in the army. The Earl of Essex was therefore compelled to resign; and Lord Fairfax, an able general, was appointed to the chief command of the army of the Parliament. Cromwell, who had been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Self-denying Ordinance, hastened to resign his command; but through the influence of Fairfax, who felt that Cromwell's services in the army were necessary to insure the overthrow of the Royal party, the Parliament dispensed with the Self-denying Ordinance in Cromwell's case, and he was permitted to retain his position.

81. Some efforts at peace having failed, the civil war again burst forth with all its fury. The army of King

Charles I. was completely overthrown, and his cause was utterly ruined, in the desperate

Renewal of the civil war. battle of Naseby, in Northamptonshire, on the 14th of June, 1645. The Parliamentary forces were commanded by Fairfax, Skippon, Cromwell, and Ireton; and the Royalists by the king, Prince Rupert, Lord Astley, and Sir Marmaduke Langdale. The defeat of the Royal army, was caused, in a great measure, by the rashness and impatience of Prince Rupert, who overruled the more prudent judgment of the king. Rupert, with the right wing of the Royal cavalry, dashed with the most fiery impetuosity upon the Parliamentary left wing, commanded by General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law. At the same time Cromwell, with the Parliamentary right wing, assailed the Royal left wing; while the centres of the two armies, led respectively by Fairfax and the king, were struggling desperately. The Parliamentary left was thoroughly annihilated, and Ireton was made a prisoner; but Rupert lost precious time in an unnecessary pursuit of Ireton's broken

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forces, when he should have gone to the aid of the king. In the meantime Cromwell with his "Ironsides" defeated the Royal cavalry, after which he flew to the aid of the Parliamentary centre, which was beginning to give way before the Royalists. Cromwell and his Ironsides, who insured victory wherever they appeared, soon put the king's infantry to a total rout; and Charles I., seeing that the day was lost to his cause, retired with his forces, leaving the field, all his baggage and cannon, and 50,000 prisoners, in the hands of the victorious Parliamentarians.

32. By their victory at Naseby, the Parliamentarians obtained possession of all the strong cities in the kingdom, such as Bristol, Bridgewater, Bath, and Chester. Exeter was besieged and taken by Fairfax, The king in the hands of the Scots. whereupon the king and his broken hosts retreated to Oxford, which Fairfax and Cromwell were preparing to besiege. Rather than be taken prisoner by his enemies, Charles I. fled into Scotland, hoping to find respect and kind treatment among his Scotch subjects. He went into the camp of an army of Scots that was engaged in the service of the Parliament; but instead of treating him as their king, the Scots placed a guard around him and kept him as a prisoner. The fanatical Scotch preachers, unable to restrain their zeal, insulted him to his face, and, in sermons preached in his presence, bitterly reproached him as a wicked tyrant.

33. When the Parliament was informed that the king was in the hands of the Scots, it began to negotiate with them for the possession of his person. The Scots surrendered Charles I. into the hands of The king in the power of the Parliament. commissioners appointed by the Parliament, upon receiving 400,000 pounds sterling. The Scots were ever afterwards ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign to his inveterate foes.

34. As we have already seen, the king's enemies were divided into the Presbyterian and Independent parties

Presbyterians and Independents.

The most inveterate animosity now existed between these two factions. The Presbyterians had a majority in the Parliament, while the Independents had a majority in the army.

35. The Presbyterians, in conjunction with the Royalists, now endeavored to restore to the king his authority;

The king in the power of Cromwell.

but in this they were opposed by the Independents, the most rigid of Puritans, and republicans in principle. The leader of the Independent party was Oliver Cromwell, who took King Charles I. from the commissioners of the Parliament, and placed him in the charge of the army. The Parliament now proposed to disband the army; but the officers and troops, instigated by Cromwell, resolved to remain together.

36. Cromwell now marched to London, and subjected the city and the Parliament to his authority. The king in the meantime escaped to the Isle of Wight.

Arbitrary proceedings of Cromwell.

The Parliament now desired an accommodation with the king; but Charles relied upon foreign aid. Cromwell having discovered the insincerity of the king, resolved upon his destruction. The Parliament was thrown into the greatest consternation upon the reception of intelligence that the king had again been seized and placed in the power of the army, by the secret orders of Cromwell.

37. The Parliament now endeavored to destroy Cromwell; but, anticipating their design, he resolved to annihilate their power by a decisive blow. He

Colonel Pride's purge.

therefore sent to London a body of troops under Colonel Pride, who surrounded the Parliament-house and excluded all the Presbyterian members from their seats. (December, 1648.) This violent proceeding is known as "Colonel Pride's Purge."

38. Oliver Cromwell was now virtual dictator of England, and the Parliament, which now consisted of

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Independents, and which was called "The Rump Parliament," was entirely under his control. Cromwell now caused articles of impeachment to be preferred against the king, or Charles Stuart, as he was now called, charging him with high treason, in levying war against his Parliament. A High Court of Justice was organized, and held in Westminster Hall, for the purpose of trying the king; but Charles persistently denied the jurisdiction of the court. The trial commenced on the 20th of January, 1649. As the king was on his way to the court-room, he was insulted by the soldiery and the mob, who uttered all sorts of unfeeling cries. After a trial of seven days, Charles I. was declared guilty, and was condemned to death as a traitor and a murderer. On his way from the court-room, he was again insulted by the soldiers and the rabble, who cried out, "Justice!" "Execution!" and some even went so far as to spit in his face. Charles bore all their insolence with patience, saying, "Poor souls, they would treat their generals the same way for a sixpence." On the 30th of January, 1649, the king was led to the place of execution, in front of the palace of Whitehall. He ascended the scaffold with a firm step. Addressing those around him, he declared himself innocent toward his people, and forgave his enemies. Turning to Bishop Juxon, he said, "I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can take place." "You exchange," said the bishop, "a temporal for an eternal crown: a good exchange." The king then laid his head upon the block, saying to Bishop Juxon, "Remember." One of the executioners then struck off the king's head; and another, holding it aloft, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor!" Many of the spectators wept at the horrid spectacle.

Trial and
execution of
Charles I.

CHAPTER XC.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—*Continued.*

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

1. A few days after the execution of Charles I., the House of Lords and the monarchical form of government were abolished by the Commons; and the "Rump Parliament," as it was called, upheld by Oliver Cromwell and the army, governed the country. The so-called republic was styled "The Commonwealth of England."

2. The Royalists were still active in Ireland. After arranging affairs in England, Cromwell and his army passed over into Ireland, where the Royalists, headed by the Duke of Ormond, were still in arms against the republican Parliament. After defeating the Royalists in many encounters, and taking numerous towns, Cromwell reduced Ireland to subjection, treating the vanquished with the greatest severity. Those garrisons which obstinately resisted his assaults were put to the sword, after falling into his hands. After returning to England, Cromwell received the thanks of the Parliament for reducing Ireland to submission.

3. In the meantime, the Scotch Covenanters, who bitterly repented of their conduct toward their late unfortunate king, took up arms in favor of his son, Prince Charles, whom they acknowledged as king, by the title of Charles II. The terms upon which the Scots agreed to recognize Prince Charles as king, were that he should sign "the Covenant," enter the Presbyterian Church, and accept a limited royal prerogative. After some hesitation, the prince agreed to these conditions, left Holland, and made his appearance in Scotland.

4. At the head of 16,000 troops Cromwell marched

Abolition of Monarchy.

Reduction of the Irish Royalists.

Rise of the Scotch Covenanters in favor of Prince Charles.

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against the Scotch Covenanters, but many of his troops died from hunger and sickness on the way. At Dunbar, Cromwell, with only 12,000 men, **Battle of Dunbar.** was opposed by 27,000 Scotch Covenanters, who considered victory certain. The Scotch preachers endeavored to prove from the Old Testament that the Covenanters would conquer, and urged an attack upon Cromwell's army. When Cromwell saw the Scots advancing, he exclaimed, "The Lord has delivered them into our hands!" A furious battle ensued, on the 3d of September, 1650, and Cromwell gained a glorious victory. The Scotch troops threw down their arms and fled in every direction, after losing 4,000 killed and wounded, and 10,000 prisoners.

5. While Cromwell was still in Scotland, Prince Charles, with a body of Scotch troops, marched into England, and was joined by a considerable number of English Royalists. Cromwell at **Battle of Worcester.** length advanced against the prince; and, on the 3d of September, 1651, exactly one year after the battle of Dunbar, was fought the battle of Worcester, in which Cromwell gained another brilliant victory. The Royal army was hopelessly annihilated. Prince Charles fled from the field, and after a series of narrow escapes, arrived safely in France. Scotland was soon subdued by General Monk, whom Cromwell had left in command in that country.

6. In October, 1651, the English Parliament passed the famous Navigation Act, which prohibited foreigners from bringing into England in their own ships anything but their own productions. This **Success of the English in a naval war with Holland.** measure operated injuriously against Holland, then the leading commercial nation in the world; and in May, 1652, a furious naval war broke out between England and Holland. The English navy, under the command of the gallant Admiral Blake and General Monk, the latter

of whom proved to be as able a commander on sea as on land, gained splendid victories over the Dutch fleets, commanded by Van Tromp and DeRuyter. Peace was made in April, 1654, on terms humiliating to the Dutch.

7. In the meantime, while the war with Holland was raging, a quarrel had arisen between Oliver Cromwell and the Long Parliament, as to which should have the supreme power. Secure in the attachment of his army, Cromwell resolved upon a decisive blow. He persuaded the officers of the army to present a petition to the Parliament for the payment of arrears and for a redress of grievances, which he knew would be rejected with scorn. In this petition, the officers, after demanding the payment of arrears, asked the Parliament to consider how long it had sat, and what professions it had once made of establishing liberty on the widest basis. The Parliament was so exasperated at this haughty presumption of the army, that it appointed a committee to report an act declaring that all persons presenting such petitions in future should be considered guilty of high treason. This action was followed by a remonstrance of the army officers, to which an angry reply was returned by the Parliament. The quarrel became warmer and warmer; and when Cromwell was informed of the subject upon which the Parliament was deliberating, he left the council of officers, and, appearing very angry, hastened to the Parliament House with 300 soldiers. Leaving the soldiers outside at the door, Cromwell entered the house and sat down. After sitting for some time, he suddenly started up, exclaiming "This is the time,—I must do it!" and stamping his foot upon the floor as a signal, the house was immediately filled with soldiers. Then addressing the members, he said, "For shame, get you gone. Give place to honest men,—to men who will more faithfully discharge their duties. You are no longer a Parliament: I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament. The Lord has

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done with you." Sir Henry Vane crying out against this conduct, Cromwell exclaimed, "Sir Henry Vane! O Sir Henry Vane! the Lord deliver me from Sir Henry Vane!" Cromwell then reproached the members for their vices, and said, "It is you who have forced me to do this." I have sought the Lord night and day, that he would slay me rather than put me upon this work." Colonel Harrison then led the speaker from the chair, and the other members rushed out of the door. After the hall had been cleared, Cromwell ordered the doors to be locked, and, putting the keys into his pocket, he returned to Whitehall. Cromwell's dissolution of the Long Parliament occurred on the 20th of April, 1653.

8. Oliver Cromwell was now virtually sole ruler of England, with more real power than any of the ancient kings. To keep up the appearance of a Commonwealth, he summoned another Parliament, **Praise-God Barebone's Parliament.** which was composed of the most ignorant religious fanatics. One of the principal orators of this Parliament was the leather-seller, Barebone, and the Parliament was known as "Barebone's Parliament." The members of this Parliament, to show their religious zeal, adopted new names, consisting of several words, and sometimes whole sentences. Barebone himself was named "Praise-God." Other ridiculous names adopted were, "Stand-fast-on-high" Stringer, "Fight-the-good-fight-of-faith" White, "More-fruit" Fowler, "Good-reward" Smart. Barebone had a brother who was named, "If-Christ-had-not-died-for-you-you-had-been-damned" Barebone. This being too lengthy to say every time his name was mentioned, he was generally called "Dampned" Barebone. The whole conduct of Barebone's Parliament was most absurd; and at length, in December, 1653, the members agreeing that they had sat long enough, went, with Rouse, their speaker, at their head, to Cromwell, and voluntarily resigned their power into his hands. Cromwell, who was ashamed of

their ridiculous proceedings, gladly accepted their resignations; and being told that some of the members had determined to remain, he sent Colonel White with a body of troops to drive them from the house. The colonel, entering the hall, asked the refractory members what they were doing there. One Moyer, whom they had placed in the chair, replied, "We are seeking the Lord." "Then," said White, "you may go elsewhere; for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years." The members then withdrew from the hall, and Cromwell's authority was undisputed.

9. A new constitution, called "The Instrument of Government," projected by General Lambert, was now

**Cromwell
Lord-Pro-
tector of the
Common-
wealth of
England.**

adopted, by which Oliver Cromwell was entrusted with the supreme power, with the title of "Lord-Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland." Cromwell shared the government with a Council and a Parliament; but he was in all but name a monarch. As Lord-Protector, Cromwell governed vigorously and successfully, and made himself respected at home and abroad; and England was never more prosperous than under his firm rule.

10. Several subsequent Parliaments were successively dissolved by Cromwell. The Parliament of 1656 offered Cromwell a crown, but he declined the offer.

**Royalist con-
spiracy—war
with Spain.**

In 1655, a dangerous conspiracy of the Royalists was discovered, and many of the conspirators were punished. During the same year, the shrewd Cardinal Mazarin, who then wielded the destinies of France, by flattering Cromwell, induced England to take part with France in a war against Spain. Admiral Blake defeated the Spanish fleets in the Mediterranean Sea, and Admirals Penn and Venables conquered the island of Jamaica, in the West Indies, from the Spaniards. Jamaica has ever since remained in the possession of England. An

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English force of 6,000 men joined the French in the Netherlands: and the fortress of Dunkirk, which the French took from the Spaniards, was given to England, as a reward for her assistance to France in the war.

11. Cromwell's situation was not an enviable one. He was now equally hated by the Royalists and the Republicans; and many plots were formed against his power and his life. His eldest daughter, Conspiracies against Cromwell—his fear of assassination. Mrs. Fleetwood, was so violent a Republican that she dreaded to see her father invested with supreme power. His favorite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, was a staunch Royalist; and on her death-bed, she reproached her father for overturning the monarchy. His other daughters, Lady Franconberg, and Lady Rich, were also zealous Royalists. Conspiracy after conspiracy embittered the last days of Cromwell's life. The Lord-Protector was in constant fear of assassination. He wore armor under his clothes, and always carried pistols in his pockets. His countenance was gloomy, and he trusted no one. When he travelled out, he was attended by a numerous guard. He never returned by the same road which he went; and he did not sleep more than three nights in the same room. Cromwell was delivered from his miserable existence by a slow fever, of which he died on the 3d of September, 1658,—the anniversary of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, and a day which he had always regarded as the most fortunate of his life. Thus died the greatest man that England ever produced,—a great general, statesman, and ruler.

12. Richard Cromwell, Oliver's son, was proclaimed Lord-Protector of the Commonwealth of England, upon his father's death; but Richard, who had no Richard Cromwell Lord-Protector—His Resignation. executive abilities or firmness whatever, and who was of a quiet and unambitious nature, quietly resigned the Lord-Protectorship, after holding it a few months, and retired to private life.

18. After the resignation of Richard Cromwell, England was virtually without any government, and each party endeavored to obtain the supremacy.

**Restoration
of Monarchy.**

The Rump Parliament, which Oliver Cromwell had so violently dissolved in April, 1653, re-assembled, and assumed the direction of national affairs. But this Parliament did not possess the confidence of any party, and it was dissolved by the army commanded by General Lambert, who then undertook the control of public affairs. It was now the settled conviction of many that nothing but the restoration of monarchy would free them from a state of anarchy. General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland, and who long hated General Lambert, secretly formed the design of restoring the monarchy, in the person of Prince Charles, the eldest son of the late unfortunate monarch; and at once entered into a correspondence with the prince, who was then living in Holland. So well did General Monk conceal his design, that no one knew with which party he was acting, and he was enabled to march unopposed from Scotland to London. Lambert had in the mean time been imprisoned in the Tower, by his own troops, who now joined Monk. On the 1st of May, 1660, Monk threw off the mask, by proposing to a new Parliament, which had just been assembled, the restoration of the monarchy. This proposal was hailed with joy by the English people, who were tired of the condition of anarchy which had prevailed since the death of Oliver Cromwell. The House of Lords hastened to reinstate itself in its former dignity. On the 8th of May (1660), Prince Charles was proclaimed King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, with the title of Charles II; and on the 29th of the same month,—which was his birthday,—he made his triumphal entry into London, and everything was restored to its ancient footing.

CHAPTER XCI.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued).

THE RESTORED HOUSE OF STUART.

1. CHARLES II. was thirty years old when he found himself so unexpectedly seated on the throne of England. He had an agreeable person, a polished address, and a cheerful and engaging demeanor. His ^{Character of Charles II.} whole deportment tended to secure favor and popularity. His excessive indolence and love of pleasure made him hate business, and leave the affairs of government to others. All that the new sovereign cared for was to live idly and jovially.

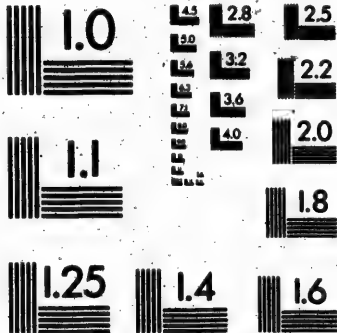
2. The first measures of the new monarch gave general satisfaction to the English nation. The Earl of Clarendon, who was highly esteemed for his virtues, was ^{First measures and actions of Charles II.} placed at the head of the Ministry; and by his uprightness and prudence, the government was conducted for some time with justice and moderation. A general amnesty was granted to all who had taken sides against the king during the civil wars, excepting those who had been chiefly concerned in procuring the death of Charles I. Of the sixty persons who had been concerned in that act, many were dead, and others had left the country. Of those brought to trial, ten were executed as régicides. Among the number was Sir Henry Vane. They all died with firmness. Oliver Cromwell, though dead, was regarded as a proper object of revenge. His body was torn from the grave and hung on a gibbet. The Protestant Episcopal Church was reëstablished, and the Presbyterian clergy were again deprived of their offices.

3. The English people were dissatisfied with the marriage of Charles II., in 1662, with Catharine of



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Marriage of Charles II.—War with Holland. Braganza, a daughter of the King of Portugal, and with the sale of Dunkirk to France; but still a greater degree of discontent was manifested when the king, in 1663, involved England in a naval war with Holland. The chief naval commanders of the English in this war were Prince Rupert and General Monk, the latter of whom had been created Duke of Albemarle, as a reward for his services in the restoration of the monarchy. The discontent of the English people and Parliament, who were opposed to the war, obliged the king to conclude with Holland the Peace of Breda, in August 1667, by which the Dutch colony of New Netherland, in North America, was ceded to England, under the name of New York.

4. In the fall of 1665 a violent plague broke out in London, and about 90,000 persons fell victims to its ravages. In September, 1666, a great fire, which **Great Plague and Fire in London.** raged for three days and three nights, reduced two-thirds of the city to ashes. Eighty-nine churches, and over 13,000 houses were destroyed. These awful calamities had no influence on King Charles II., who had already given himself up to all sorts of luxury, extravagance, and vice. His favorites and courtiers were the most profligate and unworthy characters.

5. In 1667 the Earl of Clarendon, whose virtues and integrity had made him hated by the king's licentious favorites, fell into disgrace; and, after a trial **Disgrace and banishment of Clarendon.** on various frivolous pretenses, he was declared guilty of neglect of duty, and sentenced to banishment. He retired to France, where he spent the remainder of his life in writing his "History of the Rebellion." After the disgrace of Clarendon, Charles II., whose profligacy and debauchery increased daily, committed a series of tyrannical and violent acts. In 1667, the king entrusted the government to five of the most unprincipled men in the kingdom. These were Clifford, Ashley,

-Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, who were together called "The Cabal," from the initial letters of their names. "The Cabal" Ministry carried on the government entirely in accordance with the wishes of the king, regardless of the rights and liberties of the people of England.

6. In 1672 Charles II., in utter disregard of the wishes of his subjects, began a fresh war against Holland, as an ally of Louis XIV. of France. The English king, whose pleasures were very expensive, was **Another war with Holland.** bribed by the French monarch to take part in the war. A secret treaty was concluded between the two sovereigns, by which Charles was to receive a secret pension from Louis. The war was carried on on the sea. The English naval commanders were Prince Rupert, Lord Sandwich, and the Duke of York, the brother of King Charles II. After the Cabal Ministry had been broken up in 1674, by the death of Clifford and the disgrace of Ashley, men more worthy were placed at the head of affairs in England; and the great opposition of the English people and Parliament forced Charles II. to renounce his alliance with the King of France and to make peace with Holland.

7. Venality and corruption were now honorable among the higher classes in England. The example of the king had a most pernicious influence upon the nation. The people emulated the vices of their sovereign; and the literature of that period which obtained any popularity was contaminated **Character of the English People during the reign of Charles II.** with the same vicious spirit by which English society was corrupted. Under the rigid rule of the Puritans and Cromwell, during the period of the Commonwealth, vice and immorality were checked; but during the reign of Charles II., England was sunk in the lowest depths of dissipation and licentiousness.

8. King Charles II., unwarned by the fate of his father, strove for absolute power; and from the beginning to the

Contests between King Charles II. and the Parliament.

end of his reign, there was a continual contest between the king and the Parliament. The efforts of Charles II. for the establishment of absolute royal power were firmly resisted by the Parliament, which was resolved upon upholding its own privileges, and the rights and liberties of the people of England. Although Charles II. outwardly conformed to the Episcopal Church, he was believed to be a Roman Catholic at heart; and his brother, James, Duke of York, was an avowed Catholic. The more the Stuarts favored Roman Catholicism, the more firmly did the English people and Parliament adhere to Protestantism.

9. After a long struggle, the Parliament finally passed "The Test Act," which required that none but members of the Church of England and confessors of the Protestant faith should be admitted to seats in Parliament, or to hold military or civil offices. The Parliament, which had assembled in 1660, was dissolved by the king in 1668, and a new one summoned; but the new Parliament was no more subservient to the wishes of the king than its predecessor. A new Ministry, headed by the Earl of Shaftesbury, who had joined the popular party, now came into power.

10. In 1769 the Parliament passed the celebrated Habeas Corpus Act, which protected freedom of person against arbitrary arrests. According to the provisions of this act, no person could be lawfully detained in prison, unless he were accused of some specified offence for which he was legally subject to punishment; and within three days the prisoner was to be brought before the judge, and reasons were to be shown why he was not set at liberty.

Habeas Corpus Act.

11. During the contest between Charles II. and the Parliament originated two parties, which, with some change of principles, have continued to exist to the present day. These parties were called

The Whigs and the Tories.

respectively "Whig" and "Tory," names which have ever since been borne by the two great political parties in England. The Tories denied the right of resistance to royal authority, under any circumstances whatever; while the Whigs recognized the right to resist any infringement of the liberties of the people on the part of the king.

12. Titus Oates, an infamous impostor, pretended to have discovered a plot, formed by the Catholics, to assassinate Charles II., burn London, massacre the Protestants, and place the Duke of York on ~~Titus Oates.~~ the throne. Upon the testimony of Oates, and another miscreant named Bedloe, many innocent Catholics were punished with death (1678).

13. In 1683 a conspiracy called "The Rye-House Plot," because the conspirators planned their schemes in a rye-house, contrived by some worthless characters, for the assassination of the king and ~~"The Rye-House Plot."~~ the Duke of York, was taken advantage of by the court for the destruction of the leaders of the Whig party. Lord William Russell and Algernon Sydney, two of the most worthy and respectable men of the age, were falsely charged with being concerned in the plot, and were arrested, tried, and executed. The Earl of Shaftesbury fled to Holland, the Parliament was dissolved, and from that time until his death, two years later (1685), Charles II. was as absolute a monarch as any in Europe.

14. On the death of King Charles II., in 1685, his brother, the Duke of York, ascended the throne of England, with the title of James II. The new sovereign was a bigoted Roman Catholic; and, ~~Accession of James II.~~ from the moment of his coronation, he thought of little but the restoration of popery and the establishment of absolute royal power in England. Soon after the accession of James II., the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II., headed a rebellion against his uncle,

with the view of obtaining the crown of England for himself. The rebellion was speedily quelled, and the unfortunate Monmouth was beheaded. The Duke of Argyle, who had attempted an insurrection in Scotland in favor of Monmouth, was executed in Edinburgh. The adherents of Monmouth were also punished with death. The chief judge, Jeffries, passed through the country with a band of executioners, practising the greatest cruelties.

15. Having struck terror into the hearts of the English people by the prompt and bloody suppression of Monmouth's rebellion, King James II. fancied the way open for the reëstablishment of popery in England. The cruel Judge Jeffries was made Chancellor, and many of the offices were filled with Roman Catholics, in defiance of the Test Act.

On one occasion, the tyrannical monarch sent six bishops to the Tower, for mildly protesting against his measures. Taxes were levied without the consent of Parliament; and the king, having failed by corrupt means to induce the Parliament to give its approval to an edict of toleration, declared that the crown possessed the right of granting a suspension of the Test Act. By so arbitrary an exercise of power, the king could have set all laws at naught. So blindly and recklessly did James II. pursue his foolish attempts to bring England under the Pope, that his Catholic friends became alarmed. Even the Pope warned the bigoted monarch not to do anything rashly.

16. The English people for some time bore the conduct of James II. patiently, as he was old, and his two daughters, Anne and Mary, had been educated in the Church of England and were married to Protestant princes, the former to a Danish prince, and the latter to Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic; but when the hopes of the people for a release from the yoke of popery were dispelled by the birth of a

Prince William of Orange—Flight of James II. to France.

Prince of Wales, in June, 1688, the people resolved upon the dethronement of James II., and many of the most prominent men in England entered into a negotiation with his son-in-law, the Prince of Orange. James, receiving intimation of an intended invasion from Holland, became alarmed for the safety of his throne when too late, and granted many concessions. The people of England had already resolved that James II. should no longer reign; and a declaration from the Prince of Orange, that he was coming to England, to defend liberty and Protestantism, was received with joy throughout the kingdom. On the 5th of November, 1688, William of Orange landed in England, at the head of 14,000 Dutch troops, and was everywhere welcomed by the people. The English army soon joined the invaders; the English nobility and the whole nation abandoned James II. and turned their eyes toward the Prince of Orange; and even the courtiers abandoned the king in his distress. When James was informed that the Princess Anne, his own daughter, had declared against him, he burst into tears and exclaimed, "God help me, my own children have forsaken me!" The unhappy monarch now hearkened to the advice of the queen and the priests, and resolved upon leaving the kingdom. After sending his wife and infant son to France, James left London, on the 12th of December, 1688; but he was stopped at Feversham and brought back by the people, much to the dissatisfaction of the Prince of Orange, who had promised his wife that her father should receive no personal injury; and James, by the assistance, of William of Orange, was enabled to escape to France. The fugitive king landed in France on the 25th of December, 1688, and proceeded to St. Germain, near Paris, where he was honorably received by Louis XIV., king of France, from whom, thenceforth until his death, the exiled monarch received a pension.

17. The Parliament which now assembled declared

that the king's flight was abdication, and decreed that the Catholic line of the House of Stuart should be forever excluded from the throne of England. The Prince of Orange and his wife were then proclaimed joint-sovereigns, with the title of William and Mary. The new sovereign received the English crown upon certain conditions, which were set forth in a "Bill of Rights," in which the rights and liberties of the English people and the powers of the monarch were defined. The following were the most important provisions of the Bill of Rights; the king cannot suspend a law or withhold its execution; he cannot levy money without the consent of Parliament; the subjects have a right to petition the king; no standing army can be kept in time of peace without the consent of Parliament; elections and Parliamentary debates must be free; and Parliament must be frequently assembled. The flight and deposition of James II., and the election of William and Mary to the throne of England, is designated "the Glorious Revolution of 1688." The long struggle for freedom against the encroachments of the king, was now terminated in the triumph of the cause of the people, and ever since that time England has been essentially a free government.

18. The English people were almost unanimous in support of William and Mary; but some of the Highland clans of Scotland refused to acknowledge the new sovereigns, and took up arms for the dethroned James II. The Viscount Dundee (Graham of Claverhouse), the leader of the rebellious Highlanders, defeated the forces of William and Mary in the battle of Killiecrankie, in 1689, but he was killed in the moment of victory. The Highlanders, on account of the loss of their chieftain, were soon reduced to submission, and were required to take an oath of allegiance to the new sovereigns. The clan of Macdonald,

enthronement of William and Mary—"The Bill of Rights."

Rise of the Scotch Highlanders in favor of James II.

having failed to take the oath within the specified time, were cruelly massacred at Glencoe, by the clan of the Campbells, headed by the Earl of Breadalbane.

19. The Catholic Irish also rose against the new King and Queen of England, and drew their swords for the fallen James II. The French monarch, Louis XIV., who had espoused the cause of the deposed James II., sent troops to Ireland to assist the Irish insurgents. James was conveyed to the Irish coast by a French fleet. James successfully besieged the Protestant town of Londonderry, in the north of Ireland, and was opposed by King William, who came over into Ireland at the head of a large English army. On the 11th of July, 1690, James was completely defeated by William in the decisive battle of the Boyne. After this misfortune James fled to France, without making another effort to recover his lost crown. The war in Ireland was terminated in 1691, by the defeat and death of the Irish general St. Ruth, in the battle of Aughrim, and the submission of the Irish to the government of William and Mary.

Rise of the
Irish in favor
of James II.

20. The conduct of Louis XIV., in affording assistance to the dethroned James II., led to a war between England and France in 1689. The Peace of Ryswick ended this war in 1697; and since that time England has been the leading commercial and maritime power of the world.

War with
France—
Peace of
Ryswick.

21. Queen Mary died in 1693; and King William III., in 1702, from the effects of a fall from his horse, and was succeeded on the throne of England by Anne, the younger daughter of James II. In 1707, a legislative union took place between England and Scotland, since which time the Parliaments of the two nations have been united. When Queen Anne died, in 1714, the Elector of Hanover ascended the throne of England, with the title of George I. During the reigns of George I. (1714-1727) and George II. (1727-1760), two

Death of
Mary and
William—
Queen Anne.

futile attempts were made to restore the Stuarts to the throne.

CHAPTER XCII.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—(*Continued.*)

WARS OF LOUIS XIV.—FRANCE UNDER RICHELIEU AND MAZARIN.—LOUIS XIV.

1. THE murdered Henry IV. was succeeded on the throne of France by his son, Louis XIII., during whose minority the queen-mother, Mary de Medicis, conducted the government as regent. As **Louis XIII.** **Mary de Medicis.** Mary reposed her confidence in her Italian favorites, who enriched themselves at the expense of the French nation; the French nobility rose in rebellion, and filled the kingdom with confusion and anarchy.

2. When Louis XIII. arrived at majority, he indeed agreed to have the favorites of his mother put to death, and to have his mother removed from court; but he bestowed his favor upon others, who were as unpopular as their predecessors had been, and the French nobles again took up arms. These disturbances were only quelled when the talented, energetic, and ambitious Cardinal Richelieu was placed at the head of the state as Prime-Minister. This great statesman governed France for eighteen years with the most absolute power. (1624-1642.) For the purpose of extending the French territory to the Rhine, and humbling the proud House of Austria, Richelieu leagued with the German Protestants in the Thirty Years' War. He defeated the Huguenots in three wars, and destroyed their fortresses. The most celebrated event of these wars was the siege and capture of Rochelle, the principal stronghold of the Huguenots. The place was obstinately defended until compelled by famine to surrender, when the Huguenots received toleration for their worship, by the Edict of Nismes.

3. After the defeat of the Huguenots, the rebellious

French nobles were subdued, and forced to lay down their arms. The boldest of them were banished or executed; and the queen-mother, and her son, the Duke of Orleans, who had attempted to overthrow Richelieu, were obliged to leave the kingdom, and Duke Henry of Montmorenci was executed at Toulouse. The Cinq Mars and De Thou were also put to death for conspiring against Richelieu's power. The mighty cardinal died in December, 1642; and King Louis XIII., who was not possessed of any great abilities, survived only a few months longer.

4. Louis XIII. was succeeded on the French throne by his son, Louis XIV., under whom France became the most powerful nation in the world. During the minority of Louis XIV., who reigned seventy-two years, the government was conducted by the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, as regent.

**Humbling
of the French
Nobles.**

**Accession of
Louis XIV.—
Anne of
Austria.**

As Anne reposed her favor on the Italian Cardinal Mazarin, whose principles and aims were the same as those of Richelieu, and appointed him Prime-Minister, the French nobility violently opposed her, and endeavored to regain their lost power and influence.

5. At the head of the discontented party was Cardinal de Retz, who gained the French people to the side of the nobility, and gave occasion to a four-years' civil war, known as "The Wars of the Fronde." In 1648, the citizens of Paris resisted

**"The wars
of the
Fronde."**

the execution of the oppressive measures of Mazarin, which was the commencement of the civil strife. Mazarin was obliged to leave the country for awhile; but he governed the French kingdom almost as absolutely from Cologne as he had before done from Paris. After the insurgents, under the great Condé, had been overthrown by the royal army under Marshal Turenne, in the suburb of St. Antoine, in Paris, Mazarin was enabled to return to Paris and to govern with as despotic power as before.

Cardinal de Retz, after being liberated from prison, was compelled to leave the country; and Condé lived among the Spaniards for six years, after which he was pardoned by the king, and again received into the royal favor.

6. During the period of Mazarin's administration, France was engaged in a war with Spain. The seat of **War with** this war was the Spanish Netherlands. The **Spain—** banished Condé, who led the Spanish armies, **Treaty of the** gained brilliant victories; but he found an **Pyrenees.** able rival in Marshal Turenne, who commanded the French forces. Mazarin induced England, then under the iron rule of Oliver Cromwell, to take part in the war as an ally of France; and Dunkirk, which the French had taken from the Spaniards, was given to England, as a reward for an English army of 6,000 men, which had reinforced the French in the Spanish Netherlands. At length both Spain and France grew tired of the war; and in November, 1659, was concluded the Treaty of the Pyrenees, by which the infanta, Maria Theresa, daughter of King Philip IV. of Spain, was given in marriage to Louis XIV., who on his part renounced all claims to the Spanish throne for himself and his children, and pardoned Condé and again received him into favor. The despotic rule of Mazarin ended with the death of that great statesman, on the 9th of March, 1661.

7. Upon Mazarin's death, Louis XIV. appointed no prime-minister, but took the government into his own hands.

Louis XIV. For fifty-four years this celebrated monarch **and his** reigned with the most absolute power, which **Generals and** he wielded in a very despotic manner. His **Ministers.**

Ministers were but passive instruments for the execution of his will. Louis XIV. was the greatest monarch of his age. His great generals, Condé, Turenne, and Luxembourg, and the engineer Vauban, surpassed in skill the generals of all other countries. His Minister of Finance, Colbert, managed the finances of the kingdom

with the greatest skill, and encouraged all kinds of manufactures. It was owing to the economy of Colbert that the building of the Louvre, the Palace of Versailles, the Hotel des Invalides, and the construction of the Canal of Languedoc, were commenced. Louvois, Minister of War, also possessed abilities necessary for the direction of great exploits.

8. Louis XIV. was ambitious of military glory, and desirous for the extension of his kingdom. We have seen that, by the Treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659, Louis renounced all claims to any portion of the Spanish dominions. This solemn renunciation he set aside; and on the death of Philip IV. of Spain, he laid claim to the whole of the Spanish Netherlands, as the husband of Philip's daughter. In 1667, a French army was sent into the Spanish Netherlands, which were subdued in two campaigns. The other powers of Europe became alarmed; and England, Holland, and Sweden, entered into a "Triple Alliance," for the purpose of defending the Spanish monarchy. Threatened by this formidable coalition, the French monarch found himself obliged to conclude the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which he was required to restore much of the territory which he had conquered.

War with
Spain—
Triple
Alliance.

9. Burning with revenge toward Holland, the originator of the Triple Alliance, Louis resolved upon the subjugation of that country. After purchasing the alliance of Charles II. of England and the neutrality of Sweden, Louis XIV. took the field against Holland, at the head of an army of 100,000 men, and advanced triumphantly almost to the gates of Amsterdam.

French
invasion of
Holland.

10. The situation of Holland was now most desperate, and it appeared that the unfortunate republic must lose her independence. Many of the inhabitants prepared to embark on their fleet, and sail to their East India possessions. The republic

Desperate
situation of
Holland.

implored peace, but the haughty French monarch absolutely refused. When the Grand-Pensionary of Holland, Cornelius DeWitt, proposed to surrender his country to the conquering French, he was assassinated in the streets of Amsterdam, by his enraged countrymen, and Prince William of Orange (afterwards King William III. of England) was placed at the head of the Dutch Republic, with the title of Stadtholder. Amsterdam had been secured against the French by opening the dykes, thus laying the surrounding country under water.

11. Frederic William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, came to the rescue of Holland in her critical situation; and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and King Charles II. of Spain joined in the war against France, and sent troops to the aid of the imperilled republic; while Charles II. of England was forced by the clamors of his subjects and his Parliament to make peace with the Dutch. (1674.)

12. Louis XIV. was now obliged to abandon Holland; but in the Spanish Netherlands, his great generals, Condé and Turenne, fought successively against the allied Dutch, Spanish, and German armies, under Prince William of Orange and the Imperial general Montecuculi. For the purpose of punishing the Elector Palatine, who had joined the enemies of France, the French ravaged the beautiful country of the Palatinate of the Rhine with fire and sword. The Elector Palatine beheld, at one time, from his castle windows at Mannheim, two cities and twenty-five villages on fire.

13. For the purpose of separating the Great Elector, Frederic William, from the German imperial army on the Rhine, the French monarch induced the Swedes, his allies, to invade the March of Brandenburg. Frederic William marched against the Swedish invaders of his dominions;

**Alliance of
Spain and
Germany
with
Holland.**

**The war in
the Spanish
Netherlands
and on the
Rhine.**

**Swedish
invasion of
Branden-
burg.**

and on the 28th of June, 1675, he severely defeated them in the battle of Fehrbellin, which laid the foundation of the future kingdom of Prussia. Soon afterward, Marshal Turenne was killed by a cannon ball in the battle of Salzbach.

14. At length all the belligerents, mutually exhausted, became anxious for peace; and in 1678, a treaty of peace was concluded at Nimeguen, in Holland, by which Holland remained in possession of everything she had before the war, but Spain surrendered Franche-Comte and French Flanders to the King of France.

**Peace of
Nimeguen.**

15. Having dictated the Peace of Nimeguen, and encouraged by his triumph, Louis XIV. committed many acts of violence and aggression, and so aroused the hostility of the greater part of Europe. He seized on many of the neighboring dependencies of the German Empire, and even took possession of the free city of Strasburg, in September, 1681. Spain, Austria, and the German Empire, instead of attempting to defend their possessions, concluded the treaty of Regensburg with the insolent Louis, by which he was allowed to retain what he had already taken. In 1683, a French fleet bombarded Algiers and compelled the pirates to beg for mercy; and in 1684, Genoa suffered a similar punishment, for refusing to permit the French monarch to establish a depot within its territory.

**Encroach-
ments of
Louis XIV.**

16. Louis XIV. tried in every possible manner to weaken the power of the House of Austria. He induced the Turks to renew their invasions of the Austrian territories, and encouraged and aided the Hungarians in their insurrections against the Austrian power. The tyranny of the Emperor Leopold I. over the Protestants of Hungary produced a formidable rebellion against his authority on the part of the Hungarian people, who were led by Em-

**Efforts of
Louis XIV.
to weaken
the House
of Austria.**

merik Tokeli, a patriotic magnate. The Austrian armies were soon driven out of Hungary by the insurgents, who received effective assistance from the French and the Turks.

17. Encouraged by the Hungarian rebellion, a Turkish army of 300,000 men, under Kara Mustapha, invaded the Austrian territories, and devastated the country to the walls of Vienna, in 1683. The Emperor Leopold I. fled in consternation to Lintz, and the Ottoman forces laid siege to the Austrian capital. It appeared that Vienna must soon fall, but the inhabitants of the city, assisted by a small force under Rudiger von Stahremberg, defended the city for two months, when the heroic John Sobieski, King of Poland, who had become famous for his victories over the Turks, hastened with his army, at the earnest solicitations of the Emperor of Germany, to expel the besieging infidels. The German imperial army, under Prince Charles of Lorraine, joined the forces of John Sobieski. The united Polish and German troops numbered only 70,000, while the Turks numbered almost 300,000.

18. At five o'clock in the evening of Sunday, the 12th of September, 1683, under the direction of the Polish king, a furious attack was made on the Ottoman lines before Vienna; and in the space of an hour, the whole Turkish host was compelled to flee in the wildest dismay. An eclipse of the moon added to the consternation of the superstitious Turks. The Grand Vizier, observing the eclipse, exclaimed, "Look at the sky! See if God is not against us!" The Moslems in their flight abandoned all their camels, artillery, baggage, and camp equipage to the victorious Poles and Germans. This memorable and decisive victory of civilization and Christianity over barbarism and Mohammedanism marks the era of the decline of the Ottoman Empire. The intelligence of this great vic-

**Turkish
invasion of
Austria.**

**Terrible
defeat and
route of the
Turks at
Vienna.**

tory produced unbounded joy throughout Christendom, but to Louis XIV., who had been the cause of this Turkish invasion, it was unwelcome news. The Emperor of Germany, who was envious of the favor and applause with which his subjects everywhere greeted the King of Poland, treated him with the meanest ingratitude. The valiant John Sobieski died in 1696, and with his death ended the glory of Poland.

19. After the defeat of the Turks at Vienna, the Austrians reconquered Hungary, and compelled Emmerik Tokeli, the insurgent Hungarian chieftain, to flee from the country. The Emperor Leopold I. then caused the Hungarian elective constitution to be abolished, and made Hungary one of the hereditary possessions of the House of Hapsburg.

**Hungary
Made an
hereditary
kingdom.**

20. After the siege of Vienna had been raised, Germany, Poland, Russia, and Venice formed an alliance against the Ottoman Porte. Bloody battles were fought between the German and Ottoman forces, on the Danube, in the vicinity of Belgrade; and the German imperial forces, under those famous generals, Prince Charles of Lorraine, Prince Louis of Baden, and Prince Eugene of Savoy, gained brilliant victories over the Turks. The Austrians gained a great victory at Mohacz, on the 12th of August, 1687; Louis of Baden defeated the Turks at Salankemen, on the 19th of August, 1691; and Prince Eugene, on the 11th of September, 1697, gained the battle of Zenta, in which the Turks lost 80,000 men.

**Coalition
Against the
Ottoman
Porte.**

21. Finally, in 1699, the Peace of Karlowitz terminated this war gloriously for Germany and her allies. Hungary and Transylvania were left to Austria; Podolia and the Ukraine were ceded to Poland; Azov was surrendered to Russia; and the Morea, or Southern Greece, was given up to Venice.

**Peace of
Karlowitz.**

22. The first wife of Louis XIV. having died in 1683,

that monarch privately married the widow of the poet Scarron, in 1685, and conferred upon her the title of Madame de Maintenon. Colbert, who had protected the Huguenots from persecution, was now dead; and Louis XIV., who was a bigoted Roman Catholic, listened to the counsels of such men as Louvois, and his father, LeTellier, and commenced a rigorous persecution of the Huguenots. Troops were sent into the districts inhabited by Protestants; and Louvois declared that "it was the desire of the king that all who did not conform to the religion of his majesty should be treated with the greatest severity." The troops who were sent to enforce this decree being principally cavalry, the persecution was called a "Dragonade." The unfortunate Protestants were treated in the most cruel manner by the troops quartered amongst them. Many were atrociously massacred; and at length the ports and frontiers of France were closed against the Huguenots, and such as attempted to escape were sent to the galleys.

23. Finally, in 1685, Louis XIV. revoked the Edict of Nantes, by which the good Henry IV. had secured toleration to the Calvinists. The Huguenot churches were destroyed; and orders were given to take Protestant children from their parents; that they might be instructed in the Catholic faith. There was now no safety for the unfortunate victims of persecution but in flight from their native land. Notwithstanding all the precautions taken to prevent their escape, about half a million Huguenots succeeded in reaching Protestant countries, carrying with them not only their wealth but also their skill in manufactures and their habits of industry. The fugitives were welcomed in England, Holland, and Germany, which countries were benefited by their knowledge of the manufactures which had hitherto been confined to France. This cruel measure of Louis XIV. gave a severer blow to

**Marriage of
Louis XIV.
with Madame
de Maintenon**

**Revocation
of the Edict
of Nantes—
Migration of
the Hugue-
nots.**

the prosperity of France than all his long and expensive wars against the combined powers of Europe.

24. Through the efforts of Prince William of Orange, the deadly enemy of Louis XIV., an alliance, known as "The League of Augsburg," was formed by the German Empire, Spain, and Holland, in 1686, to check the aggressions of the King of France. Savoy, Denmark, and Sweden joined the league; and the Revolution in England in 1686, by which William of Orange ascended the English throne, placed England at the head of the coalition against France.

The League of Augsburg.

25. The French king did not wait to be attacked; but resolving to anticipate the purposes of his enemies, he sent an army of 100,000 men, under his son, the Dauphin, to invade Germany, in 1688. The beautiful district of the Palatinate of the Rhine suffered a desolation far more terrible than in the Dutch war. More than forty cities, and hundreds of flourishing villages were reduced to ashes; and the unfortunate inhabitants were driven out into the fields in the middle of winter. The important cities of Mannheim, Heidelberg, Spire, Worms, and Mayence were partly burned.

Desolation of the Palatinate.

26. French armies were sent into Spain, Italy, and the Spanish Netherlands. A French force of 6,000 men was also sent into Ireland, to assist the deposed James II. in his attempts to recover the throne of England; but this force was utterly defeated by King William III., in the decisive battle of the Boyne, on the 11th of July, 1690.

French Invasions—Battle of the Boyne.

27. The French arms triumphed everywhere on the continent of Europe. In 1692, King William III., at the head of the English and Dutch forces, was defeated in the Spanish Netherlands, by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg. In consequence of this event, the strongly fortified town of Namur

Success of the French arms.

fell into the hands of the French; and in 1698 King William was defeated in the battle of Neerwinden, with the loss of 30,000 men. In Italy, the French under Marshal Catinat defeated the German imperial forces under Prince Eugene of Savoy. In Spain and Germany also, the French had the advantage; but the French fleet under Admiral Tourville was annihilated by the English navy, off Cape LaHogue, on the 9th of May, 1692. The battle blasted the hopes of James II. being restored to the English throne, and gave to England the future supremacy of the seas.

23. At length all parties grew tired of the war; and in 1697, a treaty of Peace was signed at Ryswick, in Holland. Notwithstanding all the victories of the French arms, the terms of this peace were humiliating to Louis XIV., who was re-

**Peace of
Ryswick.**

quired to restore all his conquests from Spain and Germany except Strasburg, and to acknowledge the title of William III. to the throne of England. The possession of Strasburg extended the French dominions to the Rhine. The reason why Louis consented to so unfavorable a peace, was because he saw the necessity of peace to carry out his designs at the approaching vacancy of the Spanish throne.

CHAPTER XCIII.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY. — (*Continued.*)

ANGLO-AMERICAN COLONIES.—VIRGINIA.—MASSACHUSETTS.

1. In 1584 the distinguished Sir Walter Raleigh, one of Queen Elizabeth's favorites, sent two vessels under Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow to make discoveries in America. They landed on the coast of the present State of North Carolina, but soon returned to England, where they gave a very glowing description of the country which they had discovered; and

**Sir Walter
Raleigh's
Unsuccessful
Colonization
efforts.**

Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory "Virginia." In 1585 and 1586, Raleigh made unsuccessful efforts to plant colonies in Virginia.

2. In 1606 King James I. of England granted the territory between the Potomac and Cape Fear rivers, under the name of South Virginia, to an **The London and Plymouth Companies.** association in London, known as the London **Company.** At the same time, the king granted the territory now known as New England, under the name of North Virginia, to a company in the West of England, called the Plymouth Company.

3. In 1607 one hundred and five English emigrants, under Captain Christopher Newport, sailed up the beautiful river which they named "James," in honor of their king; and on the bank of that stream **Settlement of Jamestown.** they began a settlement which they named "Jamestown." This was the first permanent English settlement in America. The settlers suffered greatly from cold, hunger, and the hostilities of the natives, until the famous Captain John Smith assumed the direction of affairs, and, by his skilful management restored confidence.

4. Captain Smith explored the country northward to the interior of the present Pennsylvania. According to a well-known story now generally discredited, **The legend of Smith and Pocahontas.** Smith was taken prisoner by the Indians, whose emperor, Powhattan, determined to put him to death; but Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhattan, interceded for the prisoner, and saved his life, whereupon Smith was released, and permitted to return to Jamestown.

5. When Captain Smith returned to England, in 1609, the colony at Jamestown ceased to prosper, and was soon reduced by famine from five hundred persons **The "Starving Time"—Marriage of Pocahontas.** to sixty. The winter and spring of 1610 was long known as "The Starving Time." The remaining settlers were about to leave Virginia, when, in

1611, Lord Deláware, who had been appointed governor of the colony, arrived from England, with emigrants and provisions, and the colonists resolved to remain. In 1613, the Indian maiden, Pocahontas, was married to a young Englishman named John Rolfe. She was then taken to England and presented at Court.

6. In 1619 representative government was established in Virginia; and, on the 28th of June of that year, the first legislative assembly in America convened at Jamestown. In 1620, one hundred and fifty white women were brought to Jamestown, and sold to the planters for wives, at the cost of their passage. During the same year (1620), a Dutch vessel loaded with negroes, ascended the James River, and sold twenty of them for slaves to the planters at Jamestown. This was the beginning of negro-slavery within the domain of the present United States.

First Legislative Assembly at Jamestown in America.

7. Sir Francis Wyatt, who became governor of the colony in 1621, gave the Virginians a written constitution, which allowed them a popular legislative assembly. This was the beginning of the celebrated Virginia "House of Burgesses." The constitution vested the appointment of governor and council in the London Company. In 1622, the Indians, under the leadership of Opechancanough, Powhattan's brother and successor, massacred three hundred and fifty of the Virginia colonists, and reduced eighty plantations to eight. The whites began a terrible war of revenge against the savages, slaughtered many of them most unmercifully, and drove the remainder into the wilderness.

Virginia Constitution—Indian War of 1622.

8. In 1624 King James I., by an act of high handed usurpation, dissolved the London Company, and, taking away its charter, made Virginia a royal province, but he wisely abstained from interference with the House of Burgesses. In 1641

Dissolution of the London Company.

the staunch royalist, Sir William Berkeley, was appointed governor of Virginia, by King Charles I., and during his administration of nearly forty years, the colony rapidly advanced in prosperity. In 1644 another war broke out with the Indians, still governed by Opechancanough; and, after a struggle of two years, the power of the savages was broken, and they ceded large tracts of land to the Virginians.

9. The Virginians, although democratic, sympathized with the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, full power was given to Governor Berkeley to restrict the liberties of the Virginians. Berkeley's tyranny produced a popular rebellion, in 1676, headed by the staunch republican, Nathaniel Bacon, who assumed command of 500 men without the permission of Berkeley, who proclaimed the popular leader a traitor. Bacon drove Berkeley from Jamestown, and set the place on fire, and the first town founded by the English in America was reduced to ashes. Soon afterwards Bacon died, and with his death ended the rebellion. The rebels were severely punished; and fines, imprisonments, and confiscations of property disgraced the remainder of Berkeley's administration. From the time of the English Revolution of 1688, Virginia was a prosperous and flourishing colony.

Governor
Berkeley's
Tyranny-De-
struction of
Jamestown.

10. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, Raleigh's friend, explored the coast of Massachusetts Bay, and discovered and named Cape Cod. He also discovered the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, and a group which he named the Elizabeth Islands, in honor of his queen. In 1603 and 1606 Martin Pring visited the coast of North Virginia. In 1614 the intrepid Captain John Smith explored the country between Cape Cod and the Penobscot, and named the region "New England."

Bartho-
mew Gos-
nold's dis-
coveries.

11. In 1616 the Plymouth Company was dissolved, and a new company was formed, which was called "The Council of Plymouth," and to which was

The Council of Plymouth. granted the territory called New England.

A few years previous to this, a company of English Puritans, who had suffered persecution in their native land, because they did not conform to the established Anglican Church, settled in Holland. They were led by the Reverend John Robinson. Failing to become reconciled to the customs and habits of the Dutch, these humble Puritans, who felt that they were only pilgrims in this world, resolved to emigrate to the wilds of America, where they might worship God in their own way.

12. These Puritans in Holland formed a partnership with some London merchants, who furnished them with capital for their enterprise. They returned to England; and in September, 1620, one hundred and one of these pious men and women sailed for New England in a vessel called "The Mayflower." These "Pilgrim Fathers," as they are called, landed on a rock on the coast of Massachusetts Bay, on the 21st. of December, 1620. They named the place of landing "Plymouth;" and the town which they founded is the oldest in New England. In the cabin of The Mayflower, just before landing, they had adopted a written constitution of government, and chose John Carver for their governor. Several months after their landing (March 21, 1621), Governor Carver made a treaty of friendship with Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoag Indians. A few days after this treaty, Governor Carver died, and William Bradford became governor of the colony. Many of the settlers had died during the winter. Other emigrants came. In 1627, the Plymouth colonists purchased the interests of the London merchants, and became the sole proprietors of the country in which they had established

themselves; and in 1684, they abolished their pure democracy, and adopted the more convenient form of representative government.

13. In 1628 John Endicott and one hundred Puritan emigrants founded Salem. They had been sent from England by a company which the following year (1629) was incorporated "The Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England." **Founding of the Puritan Colony of Massachusetts Bay.** In the same year the company assigned the charter and government to the colonists. During 1629 other immigrants arrived and settled Charlestown.

14. In 1630 a large number of Puritans from England arrived at Salem, with John Winthrop as governor. Some of them made settlements at Dorchester, Roxbury, Watertown, Cambridge, and Lynn; **Arrival of John Winthrop.** while Winthrop and others settled Boston, which became the capital of the Massachusetts Bay colony and the future metropolis of New England. In 1634 representative government was established in the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

15. The Puritans, who had just suffered so much persecution in England for their religious opinions, were no sooner settled in New England than they became persecutors themselves, and allowed no toleration for difference of opinion in religious or civil matters. **Puritan intolerance.** In 1635 Roger Williams, a Puritan minister of the gospel, was banished from the Massachusetts Bay colony because he advocated toleration for all religious beliefs. Williams founded the colony of Rhode Island the next year (1636). Religious dissensions still disturbed the Massachusetts Bay colony; and in 1637 Mrs. Ann Hutchinson and the Reverend John Wheelwright, supporters of Williams, were banished.

16. In 1643 the New England colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, and New Haven, united

"The united colonies of New England." in a confederacy for mutual protection against the French, the Dutch, and the Indians. This union, called "the United Colonies of New England," lasted more than forty years, when mutual jealousies caused its dissolution.

17. The year 1656 is noted in the history of Massachusetts Bay for a most cruel persecution of Quakers who sought an asylum in that colony. Some were whipped, others were imprisoned, and many were put to death. Finally a milder spirit prevailed, and persecution ceased.

Persecution of Quakers.

18. The New Englanders, unlike the Virginians, sympathized with the enemies of the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy was restored in the mother country, in 1660, an attempt was made to restrict the liberties of the people of New England; and a royal commission was appointed to govern the colony of Massachusetts Bay; but this attempt at usurpation encountered so much popular resistance that it was relinquished, and republicanism was triumphant.

19. In 1675 the Wampanoag prince, Metacomet, commonly known as "King Philip," the son and successor of the good Massasoit, commenced a war of extermination against the white people of New England. Philip's first attack was made at Swansey, on Sunday, July 4th, 1675, and many of the whites were massacred. The whites were soon aroused and seized their arms, while the savages desolated the English settlements on the Connecticut River. King Philip was repulsed in an attack upon Hatfield, in October, 1675; after which he was sheltered by the Narragansets of Rhode Island. A force of 1,500 New Englanders resented the hostile conduct of the Narragansets by applying the torch to their wigwams; and hundreds of Indian men, women, and children perished in the flames, and a thou-

King Philip's war.

sand of their warriors were killed or captured. The following year (1676), the Indians were subjugated, and their great leader, King Philip, was shot by an Indian who was friendly to the whites.

20. After James II. became King of England, in 1685, he annulled the charter of the Massachusetts Bay colony, and appointed the infamous Sir Edmund Andros to rule all New England as Governor-General. Andros governed tyrannically for two years; but when, in 1689, news reached Boston of the Revolution in England which drove King James II. from the throne, the Bostonians seized and imprisoned Andros, and sent him to England on a just charge of maladministration in office; and the New England colonies resumed their charters.

New England
Charters
Annulled.

21. In 1692 the people of Massachusetts Bay were afflicted with a great delusion, known as "The Salem Witchcraft." A general belief in sorcery prevailed; many unfortunate persons were accused of practising witchcraft; and, during a period of six months, about twenty persons were put to death, and many others were imprisoned. This frightful delusion passed away as suddenly as it had appeared.

"Salem
Witchcraft."

22. In 1692, King William III. of England united the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, and the English settlements in Maine and New Brunswick, as one royal province, under the name of Massachusetts; and appointed Sir William Phipps governor.

Union of
Plymouth
and Mass-
achusetts Bay.

CHAPTER XCIV.

—THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

ANGLO-AMERICAN COLONIES.—NEW YORK.—NEW HAMPSHIRE.—MARYLAND.—CONNECTICUT.—OTHER COLONIES.

1. In 1609, Henry Hudson, an English navigator, then in the service of the Dutch East India Company, explored

the American coast from Chesapeake Bay to Long Island Sound, and sailed up the beautiful river which bears his name, as far as the site of Albany. On this account, the Dutch claimed the territory drained by this stream. On a subsequent voyage, Hudson discovered the large bay which bears his name, in British America, and, while on his home voyage, his crew became mutinous and sent Hudson and his son in a boat adrift on the ice, and they were no more heard of.

2. In 1614 the Dutch erected huts on Manhattan Island; and in the same year, the Dutch built a fort near the site of Albany. In 1621 the States-General of Holland granted great privileges of colonization to a company of Amsterdam merchants who were incorporated the Dutch West India Company. This company claimed the territory between Cape Henlopen and the Connecticut River; and named it "New Netherland."

3. In 1623 permanent Dutch settlements were made at New Amsterdam, on Manhattan Island, and at Fort Orange, on the site of Albany. Emigrants from Holland came over into the colony in large numbers. The first governor of New Netherland was Peter Minuit (1626-1633), and the second was Wouter Van Twiller (1633-1638).

4. The third governor of New Netherland was the haughty, rapacious, and despotic Sir William Kieft, who vainly tried to suppress the growth of democracy among the New Netherlanders, and whose turbulent spirit soon involved him in trouble with the Swedes on the Delaware, the English on the Connecticut, the Indians all around him, and the colonies at his door. With cruel treachery, Kieft attacked the Indians at Hoboken, and hostilities were carried on with the greatest ferocity for two years, when the Indians

Henry Hudson's Discoveries and Explorations.

The Dutch West-India Company.

Founding of New Amsterdam and Fort Orange.

Turbulent Administration of William Kieft.

were subdued, and their power and spirit was broken. In 1647 the quarrelsome Kieft was recalled; and on his way to Europe, his vessel was wrecked, and the infamous governor perished.

5. The fourth and last governor of New Netherland was the firm and energetic Peter Stuyvesant, who endeavored, as much as prudence would permit, to check the growing spirit of republicanism among the New Netherland people, who grew bolder by degrees, and who finally denied the right of taxation without representation, and showed an inclination to bear English rule for the sake of enjoying English liberty. In 1655 Governor Stuyvesant conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and annexed New Sweden to New Netherland.

**Energetic
Administra-
tion of Peter
Stuyvesant.**

6. In 1664 King Charles II. of England granted to his brother, James, Duke of York and Albany, all the territory embraced by the Dutch colony of New Netherland. The Duke sent a small naval force under Colonel Richard Nicolls to take possession of New Netherland, which was done in September of the same year. (1664.) The people of New Amsterdam, tired of Stuyvesant's rigor, and hoping to enjoy greater political freedom under English rule, made no resistance, and Stuyvesant was obliged to surrender the place to Nicolls. The name "New York" was given to New Amsterdam, as well as to the province of New Netherland; and Fort Orange was named "Albany."

**Conquest of
New Nether-
land by the
English.**

7. Colonel Nicolls was the first governor of the English province of New York. The Dutch colonists were disappointed in their hopes of enjoying greater political liberty under English rule, as Nicolls, and his successor, Francis Lovelace, governed most despotically. In 1673, during a war between England and Holland, a Dutch squadron captured the city of New York, but it was restored to the

**English
Tyranny—
Dutch Cap-
ture of New
York.**

English by a treaty of peace the next year (1674), and Andros became governor.

8. In 1683 the Duke of York granted the people of New York a "Charter of Liberties," allowing them a popular assembly; but when he became King of England, 1685, with the title of James II., he revoked the privileges which he had granted, and made the tyrant Andros governor of New York a second time. When news reached New York of the dethronement of James II. in England and the imprisonment of Andros in Boston, Jacob Leisler, a leading merchant, with the sanction of the people of New York, assumed the office of governor, until the arrival of Colonel Henry Slaughter, the new royal governor, in 1691; when Leisler, and his son-in-law, Milborne, were tried and executed for high-treason.

9. From the time of Leisler's death, the people of New York resisted the oppression of the royal governors sent to rule them, and republicanism constantly gained strength. In 1734 William Cosby, then governor of the province, caused John Peter Zenger, the editor of the democratic newspaper in New York, to be arrested on a charge of libel. Zenger was tried and acquitted by a jury, and the magistrates of New York city made a present to his counsel, Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia, for his noble vindication of the freedom of the press.

10. In 1622 the territory between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers was granted to Sir Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason, under the name of "Laconia." The proprietors sent out emigrants to settle in Laconia; and as early as 1622, fishing stations were established on the sites of Portsmouth and Dover. In 1629 the Rev. John Wheelwright and others founded the town of Exeter.

11. In 1629, John Mason became sole proprietor

of Laconia, and named the region "New Hampshire," after Hampshire county in England. Mason ^{The New Hampshire grant.} settled at Portsmouth; and other settlements were made as far as Machias, in Maine. In 1641 New Hampshire was united with the Massachusetts Bay colony, but the two colonies were again separated in 1679, when New Hampshire became a royal province. In 1699, New Hampshire was re-united with Massachusetts under the same governor; but a final separation took place in 1741.

12. In 1622 William Clayborne erected a trading-house on Kent Island. King Charles I. of England granted the territory on both sides of Chesapeake Bay, ^{Lord Baltimore and the Maryland grant.} under the name of "Maryland," to Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an English Roman Catholic nobleman, who desired to find a refuge in America for persecuted Roman Catholics. In 1634, nearly 200 English Roman Catholics, with Leonard Calvert, Cecil's brother, as their governor, formed a settlement at St. Mary's, near the mouth of the Potomac river. The assembly met at St. Mary's, in 1635, and adopted a liberal form of government for the Maryland colony.

13. In 1635 William Clayborne, who refused to recognize Lord Baltimore's authority, commenced a rebellion against the governor of Maryland, but he ^{Clayborne's two rebellions.} was defeated and compelled to flee from the province. In 1645 Clayborne returned and began another rebellion; and for a time the rebels held the reins of power, and Governor Calvert was obliged to flee to Virginia; but the rebellion was suppressed in 1646, and the Governor returned to Maryland and resumed his authority.

14. In 1649 the Maryland assembly passed "The Toleration Act," which granted religious freedom for all sects in Maryland; and this induced many Protestants who were persecuted elsewhere to settle ^{Toleration Act—influx of Protestants.} in this Roman Catholic province. At length

the influx of Protestants was so great that they outnumbered the Catholics; and after obtaining a majority in the assembly, they questioned the rights of the proprietor, and with the meanest ingratitude, they disfranchised the Catholics and declared them not entitled to the protection of the laws. This outrageous proceeding led to a civil war in Maryland between the Catholics and the Protestants, which ended in the defeat of the Catholics and the overthrow of the proprietary government; but when monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, Lord Baltimore recovered his rights.

15. The Maryland colony now prospered until 1689, when a Protestant insurrection overthrew the proprietary government; and in 1691, King William III. of England deprived Lord Baltimore of his rights, made Maryland a royal province, and established the Church of England in the colony; and Roman Catholics were disfranchised in a province which they had founded. In 1716 Maryland was restored to the heirs of Lord Baltimore, and it remained a proprietary province until the Revolution of 1775.

16. In 1614 Adrian Block, a Dutch navigator, discovered the Connecticut river, and sailed up that stream as far as the site of Hartford. In 1630, the Council of Plymouth granted the soil of Connecticut to the Earl of Warwick, who, the following year, granted it to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brooke, and others.

17. In 1633 the Dutch erected a fort at the site of Hartford, and in the same year the English, under Captain Holmes, established a trading-house at the site of Windsor. In 1635 emigrants from Boston settled at Windsor and Wethersfield; and in 1636 other emigrants from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, led by the Reverend Thomas Hooker, founded Hartford. In 1635, John Winthrop, son of the

**Maryland a
royal prov-
ince.**

**Discovery of
the Connecti-
cat River by
Adrian
Block.**

**Founding of
Hartford.**

Governor of the Massachusetts Bay colony, led a company of emigrants to the mouth of the Connecticut river, where they formed a settlement, which, in honor of Lord Say and Seal and Lord Brooke, they named "Saybrook."

18. In 1637 a frightful war broke out between the Connecticut settlers and the Pequod Indians, the Mohegan and Narraganset tribes uniting with the whites; and in a furious battle at the Mystic river, the savages were defeated by Captain John Mason, after their fort had been set on fire, and the tribe of the Pequods was exterminated, and their chief, Sassacus, fled to the Mohawks, who put him to death. In 1638 New Haven was founded by emigrants from England, led by the Reverend John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton; and they resolved to be governed in civil matters according to the rules and principles of the Bible.

**Pequod war—
Founding of
New Haven.**

19. In 1639 the settlers at Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield adopted a liberal constitution of government for the Connecticut colony. In 1644 the Saybrook settlement was united with Connecticut; and in 1665 the Connecticut and New Haven colonies were united into one colony, called "Connecticut," under a charter granted to the colonists by King Charles II., three years before.

**Connecticut
constitution.**

20. In 1675 Sir Edmund Andros, then Governor of New York, attempted to extend his authority over Connecticut; and for this purpose he went to Saybrook with a small naval force; but he was so firmly resisted that he relinquished the attempt.

**Resistance to
Governor
Andros.**

21. In 1687 Andros, as Governor-General of all New England, succeeded in depriving all the New England colonies, excepting Connecticut, of their charters. He went to Hartford to seize the Connecticut charter; and while the assembly

**Andros and
the Connecti-
cut charter.**

was in session in the evening, the charter was laid on the table; but just as Andros attempted to take it, the lights were suddenly extinguished, and Captain Wadsworth carried away the charter and hid it in the hollow of an oak tree, which thenceforth was called "the Charter Oak." Andros, however, governed Connecticut, until he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, when the Connecticut charter was taken from its hiding-place.

22. In 1693 Governor Fletcher of New York attempted to bring Connecticut under his jurisdiction, and for that purpose he went to Hartford, where he assembled the Connecticut militia. When Fletcher proceeded to read his commission, Captain Wadsworth, the commander of the militia, commanded the drums to be beaten. "Silence," shouted Fletcher, whereupon Wadsworth stepped up and said, "Sir! if they are interrupted again, I will make the sun shine through you in a moment!" Fletcher returned to New York in great anger. From this time Connecticut was a prosperous colony.

23. The first settlement in Rhode Island was made on the Pawtucket river, by William Blackstone, a Puritan minister. When Roger Williams was banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, in 1635 he travelled through the wilderness, in the midst of winter; and in 1636 he founded a settlement on Narraganset bay, which, with pious feelings, he named "Providence." This was the beginning of the Rhode Island colony, which became an asylum for persecuted Christians of all sects.

24. In 1638 William Coddington, a non conformist minister, and others who were banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, founded Portsmouth, on the island which they named Rhode Island; and in the following year (1639), the settlement of Newport was commenced.

25. In 1644 Roger Williams, who had gone to England for that purpose, obtained from the Long Parliament a liberal charter, under which "The Providence and Rhode Island Plantations" were united as one province; and in 1647 a colonial convention, assembled at Portsmouth, adopted a democratic form of government and established the principles of perfect religious freedom in Rhode Island.

First charter of Providence and Rhode Island.

26. In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations a charter which left the colonists in the full enjoyment of perfect civil and religious freedom. This charter was suspended by the tyrant Andros in 1687, but when he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, it was resumed, and remained in full force as the instrument of government of the Commonwealth until 1742 when a State constitution was adopted.

Second Rhode Island charter.

27. Under the auspices of the Swedish West India Company, a company of Swedish emigrants, under Perter Minult, the first governor of New Netherland, made a settlement on Christiana Creek, near the site of Wilmington, in the present State of Delaware, in 1638, and named the territory "New Sweden." Swedish settlements were also made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, in the present Pennsylvania.

Settlement of New Sweden.

28. The Dutch at New Amsterdam claimed the territory of New Sweden; and in 1655 Governor Stuyvesant of New Netherland conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and annexed New Sweden to New Netherland. The domain of New Sweden was granted to William Penn in 1682, and it became a part of Pennsylvania. The territory now known as Delaware became a separate province in 1702, with a legislature of its own, but it was

Conquest of New Sweden by the Dutch.

united with Pennsylvania under one governor until 1776, when Delaware became an independent State.

29. Between the years 1640 and 1650 emigrants from Virginia settled near the mouth of the Chowan river. In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates the extensive region between Virginia and Florida, under the general name of "Carolina."

The Carolina grant.

30. In 1663 a number of emigrants from Virginia, with William Drummond as governor, founded Edenton, on the Chowan river. This settlement was called "The Albemarle County Colony." A representative government was adopted; and the first legislative assembly in Carolina convened at Edenton, in 1668. In 1665, some planters from the Barbadoes Islands, with Sir John Yeamans as governor, established, on the Cape Fear River, a settlement known as "The Clarendon County Colony." This colony was broken up several years afterwards.

The Albemarle and Clarendon colonies.

31. Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, and the philosopher John Locke prepared a constitution of government for the Carolinas. This instrument, known as "The Fundamental Constitution," or "The Grand Model," was extremely aristocratic in spirit, and utterly repugnant to the wishes of the freedom-loving settlers of the Carolinas. It could never be enforced, as every attempt to do so produced a rebellion; and after a struggle of a quarter of a century, between the colonists and the proprietors, this absurd scheme of government was finally abandoned by the proprietors, in 1695; and the cause of republicanism was triumphant in Carolina.

The fundamental constitution.

32. The attempt to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions in the Albemarle Colony (North Carolina) produced a rebellion, which resulted in the imprisonment of the governor, and the temporary sub-

Rebellion in North Carolina.

version of the proprietary government. In 1683, Seth Sothel, one of the proprietors, became governor of North Carolina; but, after a tyrannical and corrupt administration of five years, he was banished from the colony. In 1695 the good Quaker, John Archdale, became governor of both the Carolinas, and under his administration both colonies greatly prospered.

33. Quakers, Huguenots, and German Protestants settled in North Carolina. In 1711 a frightful war broke out between the North Carolina settlers and the Tuscarora Indians. The Indians massacred many of the German settlers, but the Tuscaroras were finally subdued: 1,200 of them were captured, and the remainder joined the Five Nations in New York, thus forming the league of "The Six Nations."

**Emigration
to North
Carolina.**

34. In 1670 a company of emigrants from England, with William Sayle as their governor, settled Old Charleston, on the Ashley River. This is known as "The Carteret County Colony," so called in honor of Sir George Carteret, one of the proprietors of the Carolinas. In 1680 the inhabitants of Old Charleston removed to a point between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, where they laid the foundations of the present city of Charleston. A representative government was established; and the first legislative assembly in the Carteret Colony convened at Charleston in 1682.

**The Carteret
Colony.**

35. Dutch emigrants, Puritans, and Huguenots settled in the Carteret Colony (South Carolina). An effort to enforce the Fundamental Constitution led to a rebellion in South Carolina, which resulted in the banishment of the governor, James Colleton. In 1690 the infamous Seth Sothel came to South Carolina, of which colony he became governor; but, after oppressing and plundering the colonists for two years, he was banished. Under the wise administration of John Archdale prosperity attended the colony.

**Emigration
to South
Carolina.**

36. In 1702 hostilities commenced between the South Carolinians and the Spaniards of Florida. South Carolina sent an unsuccessful expedition against the Spaniards; but the Appalachian Indians, the allies of the Spaniards, were subjugated; 800 of the Apalachians being captured, and their country taken possession of. In 1706 a combined French and Spanish fleet failed in an attack upon Charleston. In 1715 the South Carolina colonists became involved in a dangerous war with the Yamasee Indians. Governor Craven with 1,200 men subdued the Yamasees, and drove them into Florida.

**War with the
Spaniards of
Florida.**

37. In 1719 the people of South Carolina rebelled against the proprietary government; and in 1729 the proprietors, wearied of the perpetual opposition, surrendered their claims to the crown, whereupon North and South Carolina became distinct royal provinces, and so remained until the great Revolution of 1775, which swept away feudalism and loyalty.

**North and
South Caro-
lina Royal
Provinces.**

38. The Dutch established a trading-post at Bergen, in 1618, and another at Fort Nassau, below the site of Camden, in 1623. The Swedes and Finns also made settlements on the Delaware. In 1664, when New Netherland was conquered by the English, King Charles II. of England granted the territory between the Hudson and Delaware Rivers to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and named the province "New Jersey;" and in the same year (1664) some English Puritans settled Elizabethtown. Philip Cartaret, a brother of Sir George, was made governor, and representative government was established. When, in 1670, the proprietors of New Jersey demanded the payment of quit-rents, the colonists rose in rebellion, and drove the governor from the colony.

**The New
Jersey grant.**

39. In 1674 Lord Berkeley sold his interest in New

Jersey to some Quakers, who founded Salem ; and in 1676, the province was divided, the Quakers obtaining West Jersey, and Carteret receiving East Jersey. In 1682 William Penn and other Quakers purchased East Jersey from Carteret's heirs, and made Robert Barclay governor.

Division into
East and
West Jersey.

40. In 1688 King James II. made the tyrant Andros governor of the Jerseys, from which time great confusion prevailed until 1702, when East and West Jersey were united as one royal province, and placed under the governor of New York, but having its own legislature. In 1738 New Jersey was entirely separated from New York, and Lewis Morris became governor.

New Jersey
a royal
Province.

41. In 1643 the Swedes made a Settlement on Tinicum Island, below the site of Philadelphia. In 1677 Swedish settlements were made on the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers. In 1681 King Charles II. of England granted an immense territory west of the Delaware river to William Penn, a Quaker, who desired to secure an asylum for the persecuted sect to which he belonged. The province was named "Pennsylvania," which signifies "Penn's woods." In 1682 the territory of the present State of Delaware was added to Penn's grant. In 1682 a large company of Quakers from England arrived in Pennsylvania, founded the town of Chester, the oldest English settlement in the colony, and organized a liberal form of government.

William Penn
and the Penn-
sylvania Grant

42. In the fall of 1682 William Penn arrived in Pennsylvania, and was joyfully received by the Swedes and the English Quakers. He met the Assembly of Pennsylvania at Chester, when he established a permanent government for the colony. Under a large elm tree, on the site of Philadelphia, Penn made a treaty of friendship with the Indians.

William
Penn in
Pennsylvania.

were treated with the greatest kindness by the Quakers. The Indians who were present exclaimed, "We will live in peace with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and the moon shall endure!" They were true to their word. Not a drop of Quaker blood was ever shed by an Indian. This treaty was never sworn to and never broken.

43. The same year (1682) Penn laid out a capital for his new province between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers; and named the place "Philadelphia," **Founding of Philadelphia.** which means "city of brotherly love." Within a year, a hundred houses were built. In 1683, the colonial assembly met at Philadelphia, and adopted a "Charter of Liberties."

44. In 1684 William Penn returned to England; and in 1689 he was deprived of his province by King William III., who suspected Penn of being disloyal to his government. **Penn's return to England.** Penn's province was restored to him in 1694; and in 1699 he visited Pennsylvania a second time. He granted the colonies greater privileges and allowed Delaware to have a separate legislature. Both colonies had the same governor until the American Revolution. William Penn died in London in 1718; and in 1776 the Pennsylvanians purchased the claims of his heirs, and the province became an independent commonwealth.

45. The boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland, which had long been a subject of dispute, was **Mason's and Dixon's Line.** settled as at present, in 1761, by George Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, surveyors appointed for the purpose by the King of England; and the line established by them is still called "Mason's and Dixon's Line."

46. In 1743 King George II. of England granted to the philanthropic James Edward Oglethorpe, a member of the English Parliament, and other benevolent in-

dividuals, "in trust of the poor," all the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Oglethorpe's plan was to offer an asylum in America to virtuous persons imprisoned for debt, and to other poor. Near the close of 1732 one hundred and twenty of these unfortunate persons sailed from England, with Oglethorpe as their governor; and in February, 1733, they arrived in America, and founded the city of Savannah. Oglethorpe met fifty Indian chiefs, with the Creek sachem, Tomochichi, at their head, and concluded a friendly treaty with them, obtaining a large tract of territory, which was named "Georgia," in honor of King George II.

47. In 1739 a war broke out between England and Spain; and in 1740 Oglethorpe, with 2,000 Georgians, invaded the Spanish province of Florida; but after an unsuccessful siege of St. Augustine, he returned to Georgia. In 1742 the Spaniards invaded Georgia; but they were defeated and driven back. Oglethorpe left Georgia forever in 1743; and in 1752 the trustees of the colony, wearied of their troublesome charge, sold their interest to the crown, and Georgia became a royal province, and so continued until 1776, when it became an independent State.

War with
the Span-
iards of
Florida.

CHAPTER XCV.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

AGE OF PETER THE GREAT AND CHARLES VI.—WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.—THE NORTHERN WAR.

1. After the Peace of Ryswick, in 1697, the question which chiefly engaged the attention of Europe was whom the childless Charles II. of Spain, the last Spanish king of the House of Hapsburgh, and then on the brink of the grave, should ap-

will of
Charles II.
of Spain.

point as his heir to the vast dominions of Spain. His nearest relatives were King Louis XIV. of France and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany. Both of these powerful monarchs were the first cousins, and both were the sons-in-law, of the Spanish sovereign; but Louis XIV. had renounced all claims to the crown of Spain by the Treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659. Exasperated at the conduct of the Kings of France and England, in arranging a partition of the Spanish dominions between the sons of the claimants before his death, Charles II. appointed the young Elector of Bavaria as his heir. But this prince soon afterwards died, and King Louis XIV. and William III. signed a new partition treaty. Greatly irritated at the French monarch, the King of Spain acknowledged the Archduke Charles of Austria, son of the Emperor Leopold I., as his successor; but the Spanish nobles, corrupted by the gold of Louis XIV., induced Charles II. to make a new will, by which Duke Philip of Anjou, grandson of the King of France, was appointed successor to the Spanish throne. Charles II. died in 1700; and after some hesitation, Louis XIV. adopted the last will. When the Duke of Anjou started for Madrid, to take possession of the throne of Spain, with the title of Philip V., Louis said to him, "There are no more Pyrenees."

2. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany opposed the last will of Charles II., and sent into Italy a large army under his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, a Frenchman by birth, but who had gained great renown in the services of the Emperor, in the wars of the German Empire against the Ottoman Porte. In 1701 Prince Eugene drove the French forces under Marshals Velleroy and Catinat out of Italy. While this petty war between France and Germany was in progress, Louis XIV., by one imprudent act, provoked a powerful combination against himself. On the death of the exiled James II., in 1701,

**Coalition of
Germany,
England,
and Holland
against
France and
Spain.**

Louis recognized his son as King of England, with the title of James III., after having promised not to do so. This act of the French king was regarded by England as a national insult, and King William III. found his Parliament and people, who before had been averse to England's participation in a continental war, ready to second all his views. The most earnest preparations for war were now made by England. The death of William III., in 1702, produced no change in this respect, as his successor, Anne, declared her determination to adhere to the policy adopted by her predecessor. An alliance against France was immediately formed by the German Empire, England, and Holland. The Elector of Bavaria entered into an alliance with the King of France. Spain was divided: Aragon siding with the Archduke Charles, and Castile with Philip of Anjou. Thus England, Holland, and the German Empire were united against France and Bavaria. Thus began "The War of the Spanish Succession," which for twelve years convulsed Southern and Western Europe. In his former wars, Louis XIV. had generally triumphed over his enemies; but during the whole course of "The War of the Spanish Succession" he suffered a continuation of the most calamitous defeats. He no longer displayed the vigor and energy for which he had been before noted.

3. In Italy, during the year 1702, a French force under the Duke of Vendome gained the battle of Luzara over the Austrians. At this time, a powerful English army, under John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, who proved to be one of England's greatest generals, appeared in the Spanish Netherlands, and defeated the French forces commanded by the Duke of Burgundy and Marshal Boufflers.

The war in
Italy and in
the Spanish
Netherlands.

4. During the year 1702 the united fleets of England and Holland were repulsed in attack upon the Spanish

**Events in
Spain and
Germany.**

port of Cadiz, but they succeeded in destroying, in the harbor of Vigo, a combined French and Spanish fleet laden with the treasures of Spanish America. In the following year (1703), a French army under Marshal Villars passed the Rhine into Germany, and defeated the German imperial army commanded by Prince Louis of Baden, in the battles of Friedlingen and Hochstett.

5. In 1703 the Protestants in the region of the Cevennes, maddened by religious persecution, rose against their bigoted and tyrannical king, and Louis XIV. suppressed the insurrection with great difficulty. The tyranny of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany produced a rebellion of his Protestant Hungarian subjects, who, led by the valiant Count Ratzky, resisted the Austrians until 1711, when Hungary was reduced to submission.

6. On the 4th of August, 1704, the strong rocky fortress of Gibraltar, in Southern Spain, was taken by a few English sailors under Sir George Rooke. This achievement was by far the most important of any during the War of the Spanish Succession, as Gibraltar has ever since remained in her possession, and has given her the key to the Mediterranean sea.

**Capture of
Gibraltar.**

7. The forces of Austria and the German Empire were at this time hard pressed by the French and the Bavarians. For the purpose of relieving them, the Duke of Marlborough, with the English army, forced his way into Bavaria, and succeeded in forming a junction with the Austrians under Prince Eugene, who had advanced from Italy. The United forces, numbering 80,000 men, won a brilliant victory, on the 13th of August (1704), near the small villages of Hochstett and Blenheim, over 80,000 French and Bavarians, under Marshals Tallard and Marsin and the Elector of Bavaria. The victorious English and Germans lost

**Battle of
Blenheim.**

13,000 men, while their defeated enemies lost 30,000. Marsin was made a prisoner, and all the French artillery, baggage and camp-equipage fell into the hands of the victors. The disastrous issue of this battle compelled the French to evacuate Bavaria, and to fall back to the west side of the Rhine. The Elector of Bavaria, thus abandoned and placed under the ban of the German Empire, was obliged to retire from his dominions, and France was deprived of all aid.

8. During the year 1704, Portugal joined the coalition against France, and the Archduke Charles, with the assistance of an English army under the Earl of Peterborough, landed in Spain. **Portugal joins the allies.**

9. In Italy, in 1705, the French, under the skilful Duke of Vendome, gained many advantages over the Austrians, and finally inflicted a severe defeat upon Prince Eugene, at Cassano. In Spain, the English under the Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona. During the same year, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany died, and was succeeded on the imperial throne by his son, Joseph I. **Operations in Italy and Spain.**

10. The campaign of 1706 was a glorious one for the Allies, who acquired the supremacy in the Netherlands in Italy, and in Spain. A French army of 80,000 men, under Marshal Villeroy, having advanced into the Spanish Netherlands, was disastrously defeated by the English under the Duke of Marlborough, in the decisive battle of Ramillies, on the 23d of May, 1706. The consequences of this battle were that the French king lost most of his acquisitions in the Spanish Netherlands. **Battle of Ramillies.**

11. The French, who thus far had been generally victorious in Italy, laid siege to Turin; but Prince Eugene, with the German imperial army, advanced to the relief of the city; and on the 7th of September, 1706, he defeated the French so **Battle of Turin.**

disastrously before the walls of the city that they were obliged to raise the siege and evacuate Italy. Thus the fruits of all former French victories in Italy were lost by the result of a single battle. In Spain, during 1706, the allied English, Dutch and Portuguese forces, under the command of Lord Galway, took possession of Madrid.

12. The campaign of 1707 in a measure revived the hopes of Louis XIV. In Spain, the allied English, Dutch and Portuguese armies, commanded by Lord Galway, were almost annihilated in the battle of Almanza, on the 25th of April (1707), by the French army under the Duke of Berwick, a natural son of the ill-fated James II. of England. During the same year Prince Eugene made an unsuccessful effort to take Toulon by siege.

13. The Allies still maintained their supremacy in the Spanish Netherlands. On the 11th of July, 1708, the allied English and German armies, under the Duke of Marlborough, and Prince Eugene, severely defeated a large French army under the Dukes of Vendome and Burgundy, at the village of Oudenarde, on the Scheldt. Soon afterward the victors took Lille by siege, and the way to Paris stood open.

14. France was now threatened with the horrors of famine. This danger, together with the exhausted state of the French finances, made Louis XIV. anxious for peace. He solicited peace with Holland, but the Dutch, remembering the insults which they had suffered from him, rejected all his proposals with disdain, and Louis found himself obliged to continue the war, or to submit to the most humiliating conditions.

15. The French received another severe blow in the Spanish Netherlands. In the bloody battle of Malplaquet, on the 11th of September, 1709, Marlborough and Eugene with their united armies defeated

**Battle of
Almanza.**

**Battle of
Oudenarde.**

**Louis XIV.
asks for
peace.**

**Battle of
Malplaquet.**

the French army of 80,000 men commanded by Marshals Villars and Boufflers. The French escaped from the field with the loss of 10,000 men, while the victorious English and Germans lost 20,000.

16. In 1710 Louis XIV. again solicited peace, offering to make great concessions to the Allies. He even offered to recognize the Archduke Charles as King of Spain, to furnish no more assistance to his grandson Philip, and even to supply the Allies with money to prosecute the war against him. But the allied powers demanded that Louis himself should send an army into Spain to assist in driving out his grandson. This insulting demand Louis rejected with scorn saying, "If I must continue the war, I should rather fight against my enemies than against my own grandson." The French people, who had clamored for peace, shared the indignation of their monarch, and were resolved not to submit to any such degrading conditions.

17. Louis was somewhat encouraged by the successes of his arms in Spain during the year 1710. The campaign opened with the victories of the Austrians under Count Stahremberg, in the battles of Saragossa and Almenara; but afterwards the entire English corps under Stanhope was captured by the Duke of Vendome, after a severe battle at Brihuega. On the 10th of December (1710), Vendome defeated Stahremberg at Villaviciosa, after a bloody battle of two days.

18. Early in 1711 an event occurred which changed the situation of all parties. This was the death of the Emperor Joseph I. of Germany and the succession of his brother, the Archduke Charles, the competitor of Philip of Anjou, to the thrones of Austria and the German Empire. The union of the crown of Spain and Germany, in the person of a prince of the House of Hapsburg, was as alarming to the other powers of Europe as the union of

Haughty and insulting demands of the Allies.

French victories in Spain.

Consequences of the death of the Emperor Joseph I. of Germany.

the crowns of Spain and France, under a prince of the House of Bourbon.

19. A change of opinion with regard to the war had taken place in England, which resulted in the expulsion of the Whigs from office and the accession to power of the Tories, who opposed the war.

**Change in the
English
Ministry.**

The Tory Ministry, at the head of which stood Lords Oxford and Bolingbroke, removed the avaricious Marlborough, who had been the most influential of the Whigs, from the chief command of the English army, and appointed in his stead the Duke of Ormond, who had secret orders not to fight.

20. As early as January, 1712, through the influence of England, conferences for peace were opened at Utrecht, in Holland; but, owing to the opposition of the Dutch and German ambassadors, negotiations progressed very slowly. Finally, on the 11th of April, 1713, a treaty of peace was agreed to by the ambassadors of France and England. Holland and Germany, however, obstinately resolved to continue the war; but the decisive defeat of the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, by the French under Marshal Villars, in the battle of Denain, on the 24th of July, 1713, alarmed the Dutch so much that they also agreed to a treaty of peace with France. By the Peace of Utrecht, England received Gibraltar from Spain, and Nova Scotia and the Hudson's Bay Territory from France. The succession of Anne to the throne of England was acknowledged by France; while Philip of Anjou was recognized by England as King of Spain, on condition that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united. The war between France and the German Empire continued until the 7th of March, 1714, when the Peace of Rastadt was concluded, by which the House of Austria received the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Naples, and Sicily, which were thus separated from the dominion of Spain; the

**Peace of
Utrecht—
Rastadt.**

Emperor of Germany recognized Philip of Anjou as King of Spain; the exiled Elector of Bavaria was to be restored to his dominions; and the new kingdom of Prussia, which had been established in 1701, was recognized. Thus after a war which had been, on the whole, disastrous to Louis XIV., that monarch obtained honorable terms of peace; and the Allied Powers were punished for their former unreasonable and insolent demands.

21. Peace came none too soon for France, whose condition, in consequence of the long and expensive wars occasioned by the ambition of her warlike monarch, was at this time most deplorable. The public debt was enormous, the nation was almost financially ruined, and the resources of the kingdom were almost exhausted; and nothing but a long period of peace would enable the country to recuperate. Louis XIV. sank into his grave in September, 1715, after a reign of seventy-two years, fifty-four from the expiration of the regency. As all the children and grand-children of Louis XIV. had died before him, his great-grandson was invested with the crown of France, with the title of Louis XV. During the minority of Louis XV., the talented but profligate Duke of Orleans acted as regent of the French kingdom. The young king was instructed in all sorts of vice; and when he assumed the government, on the expiration of the regency, in 1723, his moral depravity was equal to that of the unworthy regent.

22. Under the wise, peaceable, and virtuous Michael Romanoff, who ascended the throne of Russia in 1613, that country enjoyed a period of prosperity. During the reign of Michael's son Alexis (1645-1676), the Russian Empire was extended in every direction. In 1689, Peter I., sur- named "the Great," became sole sovereign of the Russian Empire. Well did this prince deserve the title of "the Great," as he did more for the civilization and advance-

ment of Russia than all of his predecessors and successors. Before his time Russia was a nation of barbarians, and more of an Asiatic empire than a European one. Peter the Great was one of the very few monarchs who have labored for the welfare of their subjects. Having, by extensive travels through Europe, early seen the practical advantages of civilization, he encouraged foreign mariners, artisans, and officers to emigrate to Russia. In 1697, Peter left his dominions as a private individual, and went on a travel to other parts of Europe, where he studied such arts as he thought would be useful to his subjects. For the purpose of better acquiring a knowledge of the art of ship-building, Peter worked as a common ship-carpenter in Holland and in England. Although Peter civilized his subjects, he could not civilize himself, and he remained a cruel barbarian all his life. He often said that he corrected the faults of the Russian people, but not his own. He had some great vices, and was guilty of some shocking crimes, but still his name stands deservedly among the first of those sovereigns who have labored for the good of their subjects.

23. When, in 1697, Charles XII., a youth eighteen years of age, became King of Sweden, the Sovereigns of **Alliance of Russia, Poland, and Denmark, against Sweden.** Russia, Poland, and Denmark considered the time favorable for wresting from Sweden the provinces which she had formally conquered. Peter the Great of Russia was desirous of the possession of some of the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic; Frederic Augustus, King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, resolved upon seizing Livonia; and King Frederic IV. of Denmark determined to appropriate unto himself Schleswig, which belonged to the Duke of Holstein, a brother-in-law of the young King of Sweden. An alliance against Sweden was accordingly concluded between the Czar of Russia and the Kings of Poland and Denmark, for the purpose of obtaining the

coveted provinces by force. Almost at the same time, in the year 1700, the King of Denmark carried war into the dominions of the Duke of Holstein, the King of Poland marched into Livonia and fell upon Riga, and the Czar of Russia, with 80,000 men, invaded Esthonia, and laid siege to Narva.

24. To the astonishment of all Europe, the young King of Sweden suddenly exhibited great military abilities. Indignant at the aggressive conduct of his ^{Charles XII.} enemies, and having determined upon carrying ^{of Sweden—} the war into Denmark, Charles XII. landed ^{Denmark} humbled with an army on the island of Zealand, and laid siege to Copenhagen. The inhabitants of the Danish capital saved their city from the horrors of a bombardment by the payment of a large sum of money. Having invaded Holstein, the King of Denmark was at this time completely hemmed in, and found that nothing but a disadvantageous peace would save his kingdom from falling into the power of the Swedes. The Peace of Travendal was accordingly concluded between the Kings of Sweden and Denmark, by which Frederic IV. renounced his alliance with Russia and Poland, and agreed to indemnify the Duke of Holstein.

25. After humbling the King of Denmark, Charles XII., at the head of 8,000 Swedish troops, marched against the Czar of Russia, who, with 80,000 men, was then besieging Narva. Although the Swedish ^{Battle of} king had but one-tenth as many men as his ^{Narva.} antagonist, he did not hesitate to attack the army of Peter the Great. Having broken the Russian intrenchments by a heavy cannonade, Charles, on the 30th of November, 1700, ordered a bayonet charge, and, under cover of a severe storm of snow which was driving into the faces of the Russians by the wind, he assailed the enemy. The Russians were unable to stand their ground, and, after a terrible battle of three hours, their works were forced on

all sides. The Russian loss was 8,000 killed and 30,000 made prisoners. Many were drowned in the Neva by the breaking of the bridge. The Russians also lost all their baggage, stores, and cannon. Charles entered Neva as a conqueror, thinking that this great blow had completely broken the power of Peter the Great. The Czar, however, was not discouraged. He said, "I knew that the Swedes would beat us; but in time they will teach us to become their conquerors." After his defeat, Peter evacuated the Swedish provinces, and devoted his attention to disciplining his army.

26. Instead of following up his victory over Peter the Great, the Swedish king, after wintering at Narva, marched against King Augustus II. of Poland, who had **Victories of Charles XII. over the King of Poland.** unsuccessfully besieged Riga the previous year. After defeating the Polish king in the bloody battle of Duna, in July, 1701, and obtaining full possession of the provinces of Livonia and Courland. Charles XII. marched into Poland. The Swedish monarch entered Warsaw on the 14th of May, 1702, and soon afterward declared that he would not grant a peace to Poland, until the Polish Diet had dethroned Augustus II. and elected another king in his place. On the 9th of July, 1702, Augustus was defeated with heavy loss by Charles, in a desperate engagement near Gliessaw, in a large plain between Warsaw and Cracow. The camp, baggage, artillery, and military chest of Augustus fell into the hands of Charles, who soon afterwards took possession of Warsaw.

27. While Charles XII. of Sweden was conquering in Poland, his most powerful enemy, Peter the Great of Russia, was reducing the Swedish provinces **Peter's conquests on the Baltic.** on the east side of the Baltic, and annexing them to the Russian Empire. Peter took Narva by storm, built the fortresses of Schluselburg and Cronstadt, and caused the islands at the mouth of the

Neva to be drained by serfs; and there he laid the foundations of a city which he named St. Petersburg, and which he intended should be the capital of the Russian Empire. In 1703 Peter compelled 300,000 people from Moscow and other Russian cities to settle at St. Petersburg. He also encouraged foreigners to emigrate thither. Famine and disease soon carried 200,000 of the settlers of the new city to their graves. Yet Peter was not discouraged, but he persevered in his enterprise, and, by his liberal and enlightened policy, foreign artisans and merchants were induced to emigrate to St. Petersburg.

28. In 1703 Charles XII. again defeated Augustus II. of Poland, and compelled him to retreat into Saxony, his hereditary dominions. Through the influence of the King of Sweden, Augustus was de- ^{Dethronement of Augustus II. of Poland.} throned by the Polish Diet, in July, 1704, and Stanislaus Leczinski, voivode of Posen, a creature of Charles XII., was elected to the throne of Poland, by a Diet surrounded by Swedish soldiers. Resolving to recover the Polish crown, Augustus returned to Poland with an army of Saxons, and took Warsaw, but was at length forced to retire. Augustus afterwards received the assistance of 60,000 Russians, whom Peter the Great had sent to expel the Swedes from Poland; but Charles routed the different Russian divisions in succession, and struck such terror into their ranks, by the rapidity of his movements, that the Russians retired into their own territories. (1706.)

29. In the meantime, a victory gained by the Swedes over the forces of Augustus, opened to the Swedish monarch the way into Saxony. Accordingly, Charles ^{Invasion of Saxony by Charles XII.} XII. invaded the Saxon dominions of Augustus, without asking permission from the Emperor of Germany, whose attention was too much engrossed by the War of the Spanish Succession to give any heed to the movements of the King of Sweden. Notwithstanding the

strict discipline of the Swedes, they frightfully ravaged the Saxon territories. Augustus had now no other alternative than to consent to such terms of peace as the conquering King of Sweden chose to dictate. Under these circumstances, the Peace of Altranstadt was concluded, on the 24th of September, 1706, on terms most humiliating to Augustus, who was required to renounce the crown of Poland for himself and his posterity, to dissolve his alliance with the Czar of Russia, and to surrender the Livonian Patkul to the Swedish monarch, who put him to a cruel death.

30. In September, 1707, Charles XII., at the head of 40,000 troops reentered Poland, where Peter the Great had been endeavoring to retrieve the affairs of Augustus. As the King of Sweden advanced, **Invasion of Russia by Charles XII.** the Czar retired into his own dominions. Charles resolved to march upon Moscow; and Peter, becoming alarmed at this bold movement of his antagonist, solicited peace; but Charles, who had determined to completely subdue his great rival, haughtily replied, "I will treat at Moscow." Charles now advanced into Russia, and directed his course toward Moscow. Peter destroyed the roads and desolated the country between Poland and Moscow, so that hunger, fatigue, and constant partial actions would so weaken the Swedish army that it could not reach Moscow.

31. The plan of the Czar succeeded. Charles, whose army was completely exhausted, now resolved to march southward into the Ukraine, whither he had **Mazeppa, the Cossack Chief.** been invited by Mazeppa, chief of the Cossacks, who had resolved to throw off his allegiance to the Czar. Peter discovered the plans of the rebellious chief and thwarted them by the execution of his associates; and Mazeppa appeared in the Swedish camp as a fugitive, rather than as a powerful ally.

32. Charles XII. had ordered a large army from

Sweden, under General Lewenhaupt, to reinforce him. While on his march to join Charles, Lewenhaupt was defeated by the Russians in three ^{Swedish} battles, with the loss of all his artillery, baggage, and provisions; and he only succeeded in reaching the camp of Charles with a small force. The severity of the winter of 1708-9, reduced the Swedish army to 20,000 men. At one time, 2,000 were frozen to death before the eyes of the hard-hearted Charles.

33. Notwithstanding the misfortunes and sufferings of his army, the ambitious King of Sweden was still obstinately resolved upon the conquest of Russia.

At length, Charles laid siege to the strong town of Pultowa, on the frontiers of the Ukraine. ^{Battle of Pultowa.}

When the Czar approached, with 70,000 men, for the relief of the garrison, Charles hastened with the greater portion of his army to give battle to Peter, leaving the remainder to press the siege with vigor. On the 8th of July, 1709, was fought the great battle of Pultowa, which ended forever the splendid career of Charles XII. of Sweden. In this battle, Peter the Great and his subjects fully proved that they had profited by the lessons of their enemies. The Swedes charged with such impetuosity that the Russian cavalry were forced back, but the Russian infantry held their ground until the cavalry had rallied and again gone into the fight. In the meantime, the Russian artillery had made frightful havoc in the Swedish ranks. Having left his heavy cannon in the morasses, Charles could not contend successfully against his antagonist; and, after a terrible battle of two hours, the Swedish army was hopelessly annihilated. Having been wounded during the siege of Pultowa, Charles was carried about the field in a litter, which was shattered to pieces by a cannon-ball while the battle was raging. The Czar's hat was pierced by a musket-ball, and his favorite general, Menzikoff, had three horses shot under him. Eight thou-

sand Swedish troops lay dead on the sanguinary field, and 6,000 were made prisoners by the victorious Russians; and after retreating to the Dnieper, 12,000 were compelled to surrender to the pursuing Russians, and the once splendid army of Charles XII. was totally destroyed. The Swedish soldiers who were made prisoners by the Russians were dispersed over the vast Russian Empire, and not one of them ever returned to his native land. Many perished in the wilds of Siberia.

84. The once-conquering Charles XII. now became a helpless fugitive; and, with 300 of his guards, he fled to the Turkish town of Bender, having lost in one day all he had gained during nine years of war. The dethroned Augustus now re-entered Poland, and wrested the Polish crown from Stanislaus Leczinski; and Denmark, Poland and Russia renewed their allegiance against Sweden. The King of Prussia laid claim to certain Swedish possessions in Germany, and joined the coalition against Sweden. Peter the Great invaded the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic, the King of Denmark fell upon Schleswig, and the Prussians seized upon Swedish Pomerania.

85. The Swedish monarch met with an honorable reception at the hands of the Turks. He lived at Bender in royal splendor as the guest of the Sultan. He did not entertain a single thought of returning to his kingdom without having first conquered Russia. Charles made use of all the means at his command to induce the Turks to make war on Russia, and at length he succeeded. A Turkish army of 200,000 men marched to the Pruth, where it was met by a Russian army under the Czar Peter. After four days hard fighting, in July, 1711, Peter and his whole army would have been killed or made prisoners had not Peter's wife, Catharine, corrupted the Turks with Russian gold, and thus brought about an honorable peace. Charles

**Flight of
Charles XII.
to Turkey—
New coalition
against
Sweden.**

**Charles XII.
incites the
Turks to a
war on
Russia.**

could not repress his rage at finding all his hopes for the overthrow of his great rival thus blasted.

36. The obstinate Charles XII. still determined to remain in Turkey, even after the Sultan had ordered him to leave the Ottoman dominions; and the Porte found it necessary to employ forcible means to send him away. Arming his immediate attendants, about 300 in number, Charles defied a Turkish army of 26,000 men. After a fierce resistance, in which many of his attendants were killed, and the house in which he defended himself had been set on fire, Charles was made a prisoner. The Swedish monarch remained a captive in Turkey ten months longer, wasting his time in useless obstinacy.

Resistance of
Charles XII.
to the Turkish
Government.

37. In the meantime, the Swedish army under General Steinbock had defeated the Danes and the Saxons at Galesbrusch, in Mecklenburg, and burned the defenseless town of Altona, but were afterwards compelled to surrender as prisoners of war to the Czar of Russia. The Russian arms were making rapid progress in the Swedish province of Finland, and the Russian fleet gained a great victory over the Swedish navy, near the island of Aland, in the Baltic sea.

Swedish
disasters.

38. When Charles XII. learned that the Council which governed Sweden in his absence was about to appoint his sister regent of the kingdom, and make peace with Russia and Denmark, he resolved to return to Sweden. The Swedish king left the Ottoman territories in October, 1714; and, after having travelled through Hungary and Germany, in the disguise of a peasant, he unexpectedly arrived at Stralsund, in Swedish Pomerania.

Return of
Charles XII.
to Sweden.

39. At length the allied Danish, Saxon, and Prussian allies laid siege to Stralsund. After a heroic defense on the part of the Swedes for over a year, Stralsund was surrendered to the besieging enemy, in December, 1715, whereupon the whole of

Siege and
capture of
Stralsund.

Pomerania, and the island of Rugen, were taken possession of by the Prussians. Charles escaped to Sweden in a boat, and still obstinately refused to consent to peace.

40. In 1716 Charles XII. invaded Norway, for the purpose of humbling the King of Denmark for violating the Peace of Travendal. Charles soon returned to Sweden; and his attention was now occupied with the bold political schemes of his Prime Minister, Baron von Gortz, who was negotiating with Peter the Great for an alliance between Russia and Sweden by which these two powers might dictate law to Europe.

41. In 1718 the Swedish monarch invaded Norway a second time, and laid siege to the fortress of Fredericks-hall. Here the great warrior-king found his death. While reconnoitering the works, during a terrific fire from the Danish batteries, on the night of the 30th of November, 1718, Charles XII. was killed, whether by the bullet of an assassin, or by a grape-shot from the enemy, is a disputed point in history.

42. After greatly restricting the royal power, the Swedish Senate placed Ulrica Eleanora, sister of Charles XII., on the throne of Sweden; and, in 1719, Baron von Gortz was barbarously executed. In 1721 the Peace of Nystadt was concluded, by which Sweden surrendered most of her foreign possessions, in return for an indemnification in money. The Baltic provinces of Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia were ceded to Russia; the greater part of Pomerania to Prussia; and Schleswig and Holstein to Denmark.

43. While Sweden was almost ruined by the mad ambition of Charles XII., Russia, under the illustrious Peter the Great, was taking her place as a leading European power. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce were encouraged, and many useful reforms were adopted. Learning that his son Alexis

**Invasion of
Norway by
Charles XII.**

**Siege of Fred-
ericks-hall
and death of
Charles XII.**

**Ulrica Eleonora—Peace
of Nystadt.**

**Russia after
the Northern
war.**

intended to restore the old order of things after his father's death, Peter compelled the young prince to renounce his right to the succession to the throne, and threw him into prison, where he died. Peter the Great died in 1725, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by his wife, Catharine I. Russia made rapid strides during the reigns of Catharine I., Peter II., Anna, and Elizabeth.

CHAPTER XCVI.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

GENERAL AFFAIRS OF EUROPE, PERSIA, AND INDIA.

1. **ALTHOUGH** the crowns of England and Scotland had been united in 1603, each of the two kingdoms had its own Parliament until 1707, when it was agreed ^{England and Scotland} that one Parliament for both kingdoms should ^{House of Brunswick} thenceforth meet in London; and England, Scotland, and Wales have ever since been known by the common designation of "Great Britain." Queen Anne died in 1714, whereupon, in accordance with "The Act of Succession," passed by the English Parliament in 1689, the Elector George of Hanover became King of Great Britain, with the title of George I.; and ever since that time, the House of Hanover, or Brunswick, has occupied the British throne. The Tories were antagonistic to the House of Brunswick; and in 1715, some of their number in Scotland, headed by the Earl of Mar, took up arms for the restoration of the deposed House of Stuart to the throne. The Duke of Argyle, who espoused the cause of King George I., defeated the Scotch insurgents in the battle of Sheriff-Muir, near Dumblane, in 1716. The Earl of Derwentwater, Mr. Foster, and Lords Kinmuir and Nithsdale, who had excited a Tory, or Jacobite, insurrection in the North of England, were also defeated and made prisoners. The leaders of this rebellion suffered the penalty of death, with the exception of Lord Nithsdale, who

effected his escape from the country in a very romantic manner. The insurrection was soon suppressed both in England and Scotland. King George I. died in 1727, whereupon his son, George II., ascended the British throne.

2. In 1714, the Ottoman Porte began a war against the Republic of Venice, for the purpose of regaining possession of the Morea. In 1716, Austria joined Venice in the war; and the Austrian army, under the great Prince Eugene, defeated the immense hosts of the Turks at Peterwaradein; in 1716, and at Belgrade, in 1717. By the Peace of Passarowitz, in 1718, the Porte surrendered Belgrade to Austria, but Venice ceded the Morea to the Sultan.

War of
Venice and
Austria
against
Turkey.

3. The intriguing efforts of the able, but unprincipled, Cardinal Alberoni, the Prime-Minister of Philip V. of Spain, for placing the Pretender, son of James II., on the throne of England; for obtaining the regency and succession to the throne of France for the King of Spain; and for wresting Sicily from the House of Austria, to which that island had been assigned by the treaty of Rastadt, produced, in 1717, a "Quadruple Alliance" of England, France, Holland, and Germany, for the purpose of compelling Spain to observe the stipulations of the treaty of Utrecht. The Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean sea was defeated and destroyed by a British squadron under Admiral Byng; the Spanish troops in Sicily were defeated by the Austrians; while a French force invaded Northern Spain and gained some successes. These events alarmed the weak and imbecile monarch of Spain, who consequently dismissed and banished his ambitious Minister and made peace, in 1718.

War of the
Quadruple
Alliance
against Spain.

4. The wars occasioned by the ambition of Louis XIV. had reduced the finances of France to a most deplorable

condition, and an effort undertaken to remedy the evil only hastened their entire ruin. ^{The Mississippi scheme.} (1720.) This remedy was the famous "Mississippi Scheme," projected by the Scotchman, John Law. The regent adopted the plan proposed by Law, who assured him that it would add enormously to the wealth and prosperity of France; and a commercial association, called "The Mississippi Company," was organized, the profits of whose extensive trade with the French province of Louisiana, in North America, were to liquidate the whole national debt of France. Measures were taken to depreciate the value of the gold and silver coin, and the success of Law's project at first exceeded all expectations. The people throughout France, with one impulse of avarice, exchanged their gold and silver for paper money; and the notes that were issued soon rose to eighty per cent. of the value of the current coin. But the bank finally failed; the gold and silver had all disappeared; the worthless paper money only remained; and thousands of families were reduced to poverty. The popular indignation finally compelled Law to leave France.

5. A project similar to the Mississippi Scheme was undertaken in England about the same time. (1720.) This project was the celebrated "South-Sea Scheme," proposed by Sir George Blount. ^{The South-Sea Scheme.} The plan projected by Blount was the buying up of the entire national debt of Great Britain by a commercial association, styled "The South-Sea Company," because it had been originally formed to trade to the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. This debt, which had been contracted chiefly by King William III. in carrying on his wars against France, already amounted to an enormous sum. The Ministry readily adopted the plan projected by Blount, who gave every assurance that it would be to the advantage of the nation, as well as to the South-Sea Company; and the people throughout England, seized with an

insatiable avarice, exchanged their entire fortunes for stock in the South-Sea Company. The Scheme was at first successful, and the stock of the Company arose to ten times the value for which it was subscribed; but finally the bubble burst, and thousands of families were involved in utter financial ruin. A storm of popular indignation manifested itself against the unprincipled contrivers of the scheme, and many of them were justly punished by the Parliament, with the forfeiture of all the wealth and estates which they had so dishonorably acquired.

6. On the death of Augustus II. of Poland, in 1733, the Polish Diet chose the deposed Stanislaus Leczinski to the throne of Poland; but Stanislaus was expelled from the country by the military power of Germany and Russia, and the son of Augustus II. was elevated to the Polish throne, with the title of Augustus III. Louis XV. of France, who had married a daughter of Stanislaus, opposed the action of Germany and Russia, and thus brought about "The War of the Polish Succession." Spain and Sardinia formed alliances with France. In Northern Italy, the combined French and Sardinian armies defeated the Austrians in two bloody campaigns; while the Spanish troops under Don Carlos expelled the Austrians from the kingdom of Naples. The German imperial forces, under Prince Eugene, were everywhere defeated on the Rhine, and forced to retire before the advance of the French. In 1735 a treaty of peace was signed, by which Stanislaus renounced his claims to the throne of Poland, and received in lieu the German Dukedom of Lorraine; while Francis Stephen, Duke of Lorraine, son-in-law of the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, was to receive the Italian Duchy of Tuscany, on the approaching extinction of the famous House of Medici. On the death of Stanislaus, Lorraine was to be for ever united with the French monarchy. Spain obtained the Kingdom of Naples for Don Carlos, and the

War of the
Polish Suc-
cession.

leading powers confirmed the Pragmatic Sanction, which the Emperor Charles VI. had framed for the purpose of securing the peaceable Succession of his hereditary Austrian estates to his daughter Maria Theresa.

7. In 1786 the Empress Anna of Russia began a war against the Turks. In 1837, Austria took part in the war as an ally of Russia. The Russians conquered the Crimea from the Turks, but the Austrians were defeated on the Danube, and forced to a disgraceful retreat. In 1739 the Peace of Belgrade put an end to hostilities between Austria and Turkey, Austria surrendering Belgrade to the Turks. Peace was also soon made between Russia and the Porte.

8. The general tranquillity which Western and Southern Europe had enjoyed since the Peace of Utrecht was owing to the efforts of the Prime-Ministers of England and France, Sir Robert Walpole and Cardinal Fleury; but commercial difficulties between England and Spain led to a war between those two powers in 1739. An English naval expedition under Admiral Vernon captured the rich Spanish town of Porto Bello, on the northern coast of South America; but in the following year (1740) Vernon's fleet, in conjunction with an English land force under General Wentworth, was repulsed in an attack upon Carthagena, another Spanish American town. At the same time, a British fleet under Commodore Anson sailed to the South American waters, and afterward crossed the Pacific to China, in search of a rich Spanish galleon, which was finally captured, after which Anson completed his voyage around the globe. This Anglo-Spanish war was soon merged in that general European contest known as the War of the Austrian Succession, and was ended by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, 1748.

9. In 1741 Sweden, whose king, Frederic, was controlled by a selfish aristocracy, began a war against the

War between Russia and Sweden—Peace of Abo. Empress Elizabeth of Russia. After the war had continued two years, and several of the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic had been conquered by the Russians, the Peace of Abo was concluded, on terms not very honorable to Sweden. (1743.)

10. After the death of the Great Shah, Abbas, in 1624, Persia rapidly declined in national greatness; and, in 1722, the country was invaded and desolated by the Afghans, who held Persia for seven wretched years, during which they destroyed a million of its population. In 1736 Kouli Khan, who had once been a camel driver, and

Afghan invasion of Persia—Reign of Kouli Khan or Nadir Shah.

who had risen rapidly, step by step, usurped the throne of Persia, and assumed the title of Nadir Shah. This monarch was famous for his cruelties, as well as for his victories. He soon reconquered several provinces which Peter the Great of Russia had wrested from Persia, and compelled the Turkish Sultan to cede Armenia and Georgia to him. In 1739 Nadir Shah invaded the Mogul Empire in India, took Delhi, its capital, and caused 100,000 of the inhabitants of that city to be brutally massacred. In 1747 this bloody monster and tyrant was assassinated by one of his own guards, after which Persia again declined in importance.

11. The Mogul Empire in India, under its great sovereign, Aurungzebe, who held the crown from 1659 to 1707, had attained the zenith of its greatness and power. After the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707, the empire rapidly verged towards its fall, and soon crumbled to pieces. While the Mogul power declined, the Mahratta States were becoming the leading power in Hindoostan, while the Afghans had established a powerful monarchy west of the Indus. The Afghans at last marched against the Mahrattas, who had advanced into the Mogul territories; and on the 7th of

Decline and fall of the Mogul Empire in India.

January, 1761, was fought the great battle of Panniput, near Delhi. Each army numbered 200,000 men. The Mahratta army was almost totally destroyed, and the victorious Afghans returned home. The power of the Mogul emperor was now at an end.

CHAPTER XCVII.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

AGE OF FREDERIC THE GREAT AND CATHERINE II. — WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION. — THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

1. THE Great Elector of Brandenburg, Frederic William, who reigned from 1640 to 1688, enlarged his dominions on all sides by conquest, freed Prussia from the supremacy of Poland, encouraged agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, and laid the foundations of a great kingdom. On the death of the Great Elector, in 1688, his son Frederic succeeded to the electoral throne of Brandenburg; and at Königsburg, in 1701, with the consent of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, he was crowned the first King of Prussia, with the title of Frederic I. The new kingdom was recognized by the European powers in the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt, in 1713 and 1714: Frederic I. died in 1713, whereupon his son, the brutal and tyrannical Frederic William I., received the crown of Prussia. Frederic William I. died in 1740, and was succeeded on the Prussian throne by his son, the illustrious Frederic II., surnamed "the Great," who, by his abilities as a general and a statesman, raised Prussia to a front rank in the list of nations. Frederic II., on his accession to the throne, re-

The new
kingdom of
Prussia—
Frederic the
Great.

ceived a well-provided treasury, and a powerful, well-organized, and strictly-disciplined army.

2. The Emperor Charles VI. of Germany who had been the competitor of Philip of Anjou for the throne of Spain, **Death of the Emperor Charles VI.** died in 1740. Having no male heirs, he had a short time before his death, obtained, by **Charles VI. of Germany.** great concessions, among which was the cession of the German Dukedom of Lorraine to France, the agreement of all the leading European powers to the famous "Pragmatic Sanction," by which he left the succession to his hereditary Austrian dominions to his only daughter, Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary, wife of Duke Francis Stephen of Lorraine.

3. No sooner had the emperor Charles VI. descended to his grave, than a host of claimants appeared for various **Coalition against Maria Theresa.** portions of the hereditary Austrian estates, and endeavored to make good their pretensions by force of arms. The Elector of Bavaria, Charles Albert, laid claim to the hereditary States of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary, as a descendant of the eldest daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand I.; Augustus III., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, raised claims to Moravia; Frederic II., the young King of Prussia, revived some old pretensions of the House of Hohenzollern to Silesia; Spain cast a longing eye on some of the Italian possessions of the House of Austria; and France, regarding the opportunity auspicious for the humiliation of the proud House of Hapsburg, readily violated the Pragmatic Sanction, by supporting the claims of the Elector of Bavaria to the Austrian succession. England alone at first espoused the cause of Maria Theresa, furnishing her with large subsidies, and afterwards offering her military aid; and Holland and Sardinia finally took up arms in her favor. This contest, which convulsed Europe for seven years, is known as "The War of the Austrian Succession."

4. Soon after the death of the Emperor Charles VI.,

Frederic II. of Prussia made a sudden irruption into Silesia; and offered to enter into an alliance with Maria Theresa, if she confirmed him in the possession of his new conquest; but the young Queen of Austria and Hungary declared her determination to uphold the integrity of her hereditary dominions, and thus gave occasion to "The First Silesian War." On the 10th of April, 1741, hostilities were commenced by the battle of Molvitz, in which the King of Prussia, by the skill and bravery of his two leading generals, Prince Leopold of Dessau and Marshal Schwerin, gained a complete victory over the Austrians; and was thus enabled to hold possession of Silesia.

First Silesian war—Battle of Molvitz.

5. France having determined to support the cause of the Elector of Bavaria, a powerful French army under Marshal Belleisle marched into Germany, and, after having been joined by the Bavarians and the Saxons, invaded the Archduchy of Austria, captured Lintz, menaced Vienna, compelled Maria Theresa to flee from her capital, and then marched into Bohemia and took possession of Prague.

French and Bavarian invasion of Austria and Bohemia.

6. The Elector Charles Albert of Bavaria was crowned at Lintz as Archduke of Austria, and at Prague as King of Bohemia; and, through the influence of France and Prussia, the German Electoral Princes, in the Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, elected him to the imperial throne of Germany, with the title of Charles VII.

Charles VII. Emperor of Germany.

7. With her infant son Joseph in her arms, Maria Theresa appeared in the Diet of the Hungarian nobles at Presburg, and sympathetically appealed to them to aid her in her distressed condition. The hearts of the Hungarians were touched, and they unanimously exclaimed, "Moriatur pro rege nostro Maria Theresa!" "We will die for our sovereign, Maria Theresa!"

Maria Theresa and the Hungarians.

8. Troops of Croats, Pandours, and Solaves, wild and warlike races of Southern Hungary, under the conduct of Khevenhuller, and Barenklau, now flocked to the standard of Maria Theresa, and, after driving the French and the Bavarians out of the Austrian territories, entered Bavaria, and took possession of Munich on the very day that the Elector of Bavaria was crowned Emperor at Frankfort. The new Emperor was obliged to live in retirement from his hereditary Bavarian dominions, which were frightfully plundered and devastated by the Austrians and the Hungarians.

9. In the meantime, the King of Prussia had invaded Bohemia with a powerful army; and on the 16th of May,

**Frederic's
invasion of
Bohemia—
Battle of
Czaslau.**

1742, he was fiercely attacked near Czaslau, by the Austrians under Prince Charles of Lorraine and Field-Marshal Konigseg. By the irresistible impetuosity of the Prussian cavalry, under Field-Marshal Buddenbrock, and a dashing charge by the Prussian infantry, headed by Frederic in person, the Austrians were repulsed with heavy loss. This victory gave Frederic full possession of Silesia. On the 28th of July, 1742, Frederic concluded with Maria Theresa the Peace of Breslau, by which he was left in possession of Silesia.

10. After the Peace of Breslau with the King of Prussia, the Austrians recovered the greater part of Bohemia from the French. The French army under Marshal Belleisle was besieged in Prague, and at length compelled to evacuate that city and retreat in the midst of winter to Eger, and thence through Germany to the Rhine, after immense losses, only 13,000 men of Belleisle's once splendid army surviving.

11. In 1743 England began to take an active part in the war against France, as an ally of Maria Theresa. An

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English army of 40,000 men, under King George II. and the Earl of Stair, having advanced into Germany, was attacked by a French army of 60,000 men, under Marshal de Noailles, at the village of Dettingen, near Aschaffenburg. Brought by the excellent arrangements of the French marshal into a perilous position, where advance or retreat was impossible, without being exposed to attack at the greatest disadvantage, the whole English army with the king would have become prisoners to the French but for the impetuosity of one of the French commanders, who attacked the English through a narrow defile, where his troops, becoming entangled, were fiercely assailed by the Earl of Stair, and all the plans of Noailles were disconcerted. A general engagement ensued, and the French were disastrously defeated and compelled to retreat. The English, however, neglected to follow up their victory.

In 1744 a French army, commanded by King Louis XV. in person, invaded the Austrian Netherlands and captured several towns; but in the midst of his victorious career, the King of France was obliged to return, to defend his own dominions against the Austrians, who, under Prince Charles of Lorraine, crossed the Rhine and conquered the greater portion of Alsace. The Austrians were, however, soon recalled to operate against the King of Prussia, who had again taken up arms against Maria Theresa.

13. Fearing that Maria Theresa, encouraged by her successes against the French and the Bavarians, would make an attempt to reconquer Silesia, Frederic II. of Prussia commenced "The Second Silesian War" by invading Bohemia with 70,000 troops. In September (1744) Frederic laid siege to Prague, which was soon compelled to surrender, with its garrison of 18,000 Austrian troops. Frederic was, however, soon compelled to retreat, with the

Alliance of
England
with Maria
Theresa.

Invasion of
the Nether-
lands by
Louis XV.

Second Silesian war—
Frederic's
second in-
vasion of
Bohemia.

loss of 20,000 men, as the promised diversion of the French on the side of the Rhine was prevented by the illness of Louis XV. at Metz.

14. The Emperor Charles VII. of Germany died on the 20th of January, 1745; and his son, Maximilian Joseph, who succeeded him as Elector of Bavaria, made peace with Maria Theresa, renouncing all claims to the Austrian dominions. Maria Theresa's husband, Francis of Lorraine, was elected Emperor of Germany, with the title of Francis I. Although the original cause of the war was now removed, the national hatred which animated England and France prevented the restoration of a general peace.

**Death of the
Emperor
Charles VII.**

15. In the mean time, the Austrians, under the able Field-Marshal Traun, had reconquered Silesia from the Prussians. But the Prussians soon regained the supremacy by some splendid triumphs. On the 3d of June, 1745, Frederic II. won a brilliant victory over the Austrians among the hills of Hohenfriedberg; a Prussian force under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick gained a victory at Sorr; and Prince Leopold of Dessau, with Prussian troops, defeated the Saxons, who were now the allies of the Austrians, in a bloody engagement at Kesselsdorf; and the King of Prussia entered Dresden, the Saxon capital, in triumph. The Second Silesian War was ended by the Peace of Dresden, by which Maria Theresa consented to leave Silesia in the possession of Frederic, who in turn recognized her husband as Emperor.

**Battles of
Hohenfried-
berg, Sorr,
and Kessels-
dorf.**

16. The Austrian Netherlands were now the theatre of some severe struggles on the part of the French against the united armies of England, Holland, and Austria. On the 30th of April, 1745, was fought the great battle of Fontenoy, in which the combined English, Dutch, and Austrian forces, commanded by the Duke of Cumberland, son of George

**The War in
the Austrian
Netherlands.**

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II. of England, were thoroughly defeated, with the loss of 7,000 men, by the French army, numbering 50,000 men, under the command of Marshal Saxe, a natural son of Augustus III. of Poland. The French were also victorious in the battle of Raucoux, in 1746, and in the battle of Laffeld, in 1747; and the campaign there terminated with the expulsion of the Austrians, and their Dutch and English allies, from the Austrian Netherlands.

17. While the military events just related were occurring in Germany and in the Austrian Netherlands, bloody conflicts were taking place in Italy, between the armies of France, Spain, and Naples, on the one side, and the forces of Austria and Sardinia on the other. In 1746, the Austrians and Sardinians won the battle of Piacenza over the French and the Spaniards, who, after a bloody campaign the following year, were entirely driven from Italy.

**Campaign
in Italy.**

18. In 1745 Prince Charles Edward, "The Young Pretender," grandson of James II., encouraged by the defeat of the English at Fontenoy, resolved to attempt the restoration of his family to the throne of Great Britain. He sailed from France in a French vessel, and, after landing in Scotland, was joined by some of the Highland clans. The Pretender took possession of Edinburgh, on the 16th of September; and, on the 21st of the same month, he defeated the Government forces under Sir John Cope in the battle of Preston-Pans, and proclaimed his father King of Scotland, with the title of James VIII. Elated by success, the Pretender marched into England, took the town of Carlisle, and advanced to within a hundred miles of London, creating the greatest consternation throughout the kingdom; but he was soon obliged to retreat into Scotland. The Pretender was again victorious over the Royal forces under General Hawley, at Falkirk, on the 13th of January, 1746; but in the memorable battle of Culloden Moor,

**Scotch Re-
bellion of
1745.**

near Inverness, on the 16th of April, 1746, the Pretender was hopelessly defeated by the Royal army under the Duke of Cumberland, and there his cause and that of the Stuart family received its death-blow. The English tarnished the glory of their victory by acts of cruelty, and by a savage desolation of the country around Culloden. After a series of romantic adventures and narrow escapes, Prince Charles Edward reached France in safety. Many of his adherents were punished with death, and hundreds were banished to America.

19. The war between England and France extended to America. On the 28th of June, 1745, after a siege of one month, the strong French fortress of Louisbourg, on the island of Cape Breton, was surrendered to a British fleet under Admiral Warren and an English colonial land force under General William Pepperell.

20. The war of the Austrian Succession was closed by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, 1748, on the basis of a mutual restitution of all conquests made during the war. France recognized the succession of the House of Brunswick to the throne of Great Britain; and Maria Theresa was confirmed in the sovereignty of all the hereditary Austrian territories, except Silesia, which remained with the King of Prussia.

21. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle proved to be nothing more than a hollow truce. Many of the questions at issue between France and England were left unsettled, and thus grounds were furnished for a renewal of hostilities. The limits of the English colony of Nova Scotia, in North America, the right claimed by the French to connect their settlements in Louisiana and Canada by a line of forts in the rear of the English colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America, and the desire of both nations to

obtain a political preponderance in India, all led to protracted disputes which soon resulted in another war. In 1754, hostilities broke out between the English and French colonists in North America, although the two mother-countries did not formally declare war against each other until May, 1756. In 1755 an English force under General Monckton reduced the French forts in Nova Scotia, but the English general Braddock was defeated and killed in an expedition against Fort Duquesne, and his army was only saved from total destruction by the valor and prudence of Colonel George Washington, who commanded the English colonial forces.

22. It was very evident that Austria and Prussia could not long remain at peace, as the Empress Maria Theresa, who could not forget the loss of Silesia, was determined to recover that province. She spent the eight years after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in forming alliances with the other courts of Europe against the great Frederic II. of Prussia, for the purpose of realizing her determination.

Relations of Austria and Prussia.

23. The two causes of dispute already mentioned had no direct connection with each other, yet mutual interests led to the formation of alliances. The strangest feature of all was the alliance of Austria and France, nations that had been enemies for two centuries; and the coalition of Prussia and England, nations that had hitherto appeared extremely jealous of each other. This change of policy on the part of France was brought about by Madame Pompadour, the favorite mistress of the dissolute monarch, Louis XV., who, captivated by a flattering letter from the Empress Maria Theresa, and angry at the sarcasm which the King of Prussia had uttered against her, was easily won to the side of the Austrian empress. The profligate empress, Elizabeth of Russia, affronted at the sarcastic manner in which Frederic spoke of her, was easily induced by her

Coalition against Frederic the Great.

prime minister, Bestucheff, to conclude an alliance with Maria Theresa against Prussia. Augustus III., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, who was also offended at Frederic's sarcasm, formed an alliance with the Austrian empress-queen. Sweden, through the influence of the French court, joined the coalition against the Prussian monarch. Thus Austria, France, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden were united against Prussia and England. The English carried on a successful war against the French on the ocean, in North America, and in the East and West Indies; but they could give little effective aid to the Prussian king against the powerful enemies who threatened to wrest from him a large portion of his dominions, and reduce him to the condition of an Elector of Brandenburg. But the great military ability of Frederic and the splendid discipline of the Prussian army, enabled Prussia to come forth from the gigantic struggle powerful and victorious.

24. The King of Prussia did not wait to be attacked; but, resolving to surprise his enemies by an unexpected blow, he was first in the field. In August, 1756, he suddenly burst into Saxony, with an army of 70,000 men, took possession of Leipzig, Wittenberg, and Dresden, and blockaded the Saxon army, which had established a strongly-fortified camp at Pirna, on the Elbe. At the head of only 25,000 men, Frederic the Great, in the battle of Lowositz, defeated 50,000 Austrians under General Brown, who were marching to the relief of the Saxons; after which he compelled the Saxon forces, reduced by hunger to 14,000 men, to surrender themselves prisoners of war, and forced them into the Prussian service. The Elector Augustus III. now abandoned Saxony, and retired into Poland, where he remained until the end of the war. Thus Frederic the Great conquered Saxony in his first campaign in the Seven Years' War.

prived Frederic the Great of the fruits of his former victories, and it seemed as though he must fall before the overwhelming power of his numerous enemies, who now threatened him on all sides. His English and Hanoverian allies, under the Duke of Cumberland, after having been defeated by the French at Hastenbach, were compelled, by the disgraceful convention of Closterseven, to lay down their arms, thus leaving the French at liberty to operate against Frederic in Saxony. A Russian army of 100,000 men, under Apraxin, invaded Prussia on the east, defeated 24,000 Prussians, under Lehwald, and advanced against Frederic; 20,000 Swedish troops entered Pomerania, and advanced toward the Prussian capital; and an Austrian army invaded Silesia and besieged Schweidnitz, while another Austrian force made its way through Lusatia, and laid Berlin under contribution.

30. In his desperate situation, Frederic the Great saw that he must strike a decisive blow in order to save himself from utter ruin. He accordingly marched into Saxony, for the purpose of expelling the French from that country. With only 25,000

**Battle of
Rohrbach.**

men, Frederic attacked a height at the little village of Rohrbach, where he was soon confronted by 50,000 French and Austrian troops, under the Prince of Soubise, a favorite of Madame Pompadour. The object of the French and their Austrian allies was to see whether the King of Prussia would venture to attack them. They resolved to surround Frederic, take him and his whole army prisoners, and thus put an end to the war at once. At length, at two o'clock in the afternoon of the 5th of November (1763), Frederic gave his orders to his troops, and immediately his troops fell so suddenly and unexpectedly, and with such rapidity of movement, upon the French, that in less than half an hour the French and the Austrians fled from the field in dismay; and Frederic won a glorious victory.

Some of the French troops fled into the middle of Germany, while many did not stop in their flight until they had crossed the Rhine. On this memorable field Frederic lost only 515 men in killed and wounded. He took 7,000 prisoners, among whom were eleven generals. He invited the most distinguished of his prisoners to sup with him, and, after expressing his regret at not being able to afford them a better entertainment, he said, "Gentlemen, I did not expect you soon, nor in such large numbers."

31. By his victory at Rosbach, Frederic the Great recovered the whole of Saxony. He next marched into Silesia, which province had been taken possession of by a large Austrian army under Battle of Leuthen. Prince Charles of Lorraine. On the 5th of December (1757), exactly one month after the battle of Rosbach, Frederic, with only 30,000 men, met 90,000 Austrians under Charles of Lorraine, at Leuthen. Frederic immediately took possession of some heights near by, which masked the movements of his troops; and then, deceiving the Austrians by a false attack upon their right wing, he suddenly turned and attacked their left so fiercely that it was routed before the right could render it any assistance; and, after a conflict of three hours, Frederic won one of the most brilliant victories of modern times. The entire Prussian loss was only 5,000 men, while the Austrian loss was over 28,000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

32. The brilliant achievements of Frederic the Great at Rosbach and Leuthen created the greatest enthusiasm in England for the King of Prussia and his English assistance to Frederic the Great. army; and the English Government, then under the direction of the great statesman, the elder William Pitt, agreed to furnish liberal subsidies to Frederic, and to send another army into Germany. While the war was thus raging fiercely in Europe, the English experienced another misfortune in North

America, the French general Montcalm having captured Fort William Henry, in the province of New York.

33. The campaign of 1758 was commenced by Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, who, through the influence of the King of Prussia, was appointed to the command of the English and Hanoverian army. With only 30,000 men, Ferdinand drove the French army of 90,000 men across the Rhine, early in the spring, and routed them at Crefeld with heavy loss.

34. After some important movements against the Austrians in Silesia and Moravia, Frederic the Great marched against the Russians, who were perpetrating the most barbarous atrocities in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, sparing neither age nor sex. On the 24th of August (1758), Frederic, at the head of 30,000 men, met 60,000 Russians under Fermor, near the village of Zorndorf, not far from Frankfort-on-the-Oder. Here was fought one of the bloodiest battles of the Seven Years' War. It began at nine o'clock in the morning, and ended at ten in the evening, when 19,000 Russians and 11,000 Prussians lay dead or wounded on the sanguinary field. Frederic was victorious, and the Russians were obliged to evacuate the Prussian dominions and retreat into Poland.

35. After the battle of Zorndorf, Frederic the Great marched into Saxony, to the assistance of his brother Henry, who was hard pressed by the Austrians. On the 14th of October, Frederic was surprised and disastrously defeated at Hochkirchen, by the Austrians, under Count Daun. In this bloody engagement Frederic lost all his artillery and baggage.

36. The King of Prussia was not discouraged by his disaster at Hochkirchen. Daun was foiled in all attempts to follow up his victory; and Frederick again expelled the Austrians from Silesia, and then returned to Saxony, and, after compelling

Daun to raise the sieges of Dresden and Leipsic, drove him into Bohemia.

37. In 1758, success gleamed upon the English arms in North America, where three important posts were wrested from the French. After a siege of more than a month, the French fortress of ^{English successes in North America.} Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, surrendered to the English under General Amherst, on the 26th of July; Fort Duquesne was evacuated by its French garrison, on the approach of an English force under General John Forbes; and Fort Frontenac, at the foot of Lake Ontario, in Canada, captured by an English force under Colonel Brads; but the English general Abercrombie was repulsed in an attack upon the fortress of Ticonderoga, on the western border of Lake Champlain.

38. At the commencement of the campaign, 1759, the Austrians overran Saxony and threatened Berlin; the Russians under Soltikoff defeated the Prussian detachments on the Oder, menaced Sillesia, and at length effected a junction with the Austrians under Laudon. Frederic the Great was in a most perilous situation. In the midst of these accumulating dangers, he resolved upon striking an effective blow. He at length set his army in motion; and, on the 12th of August, 1759, with only 50,000 men, he attacked the united Austrian and Russian armies under Laudon and Saltikoff, numbering together 100,000 men, at Kunersdorf, not far from Frankfort-on-the-Oder. Frederic was at first successful, and the enemy were driven from the field; but the stubborn Russians rallied and renewed the fight; and a terrific charge of the ^{Battle of Kunersdorf.} Austrian cavalry, headed by Laudon in person, put the entire Prussian army to rout. This disaster was a serious blow to Frederic the Great. The Prussian loss was more than 18,000 men, and the total Austrian and Russian loss amounted to almost 16,000 men. Berlin was in danger of falling into the hands

of the enemy, and Frederic's cause seemed ruined; but, instead of following up their victory, the Austrian and Russian generals, who were jealous of each other, spent so much time in quarrelling, that the King of Prussia was enabled to collect another army; and Berlin was again safe.

39. At this unfortunate period of his military career, Frederic the Great was constantly receiving intelligence of defeats sustained by his detachments; and his situation was extremely dangerous. One of the Prussian generals was defeated at Moxen; and another at Meissen; and Dresden fell into the hands of the Austrians.

40. While Frederic the Great was so unfortunate during the year 1759, his English and Hanoverian allies, under their able commander, Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, were conducting a successful campaign against the French. Although Ferdinand was beaten, on the 13th of April, in the battle of Bergen, near Frankfort-on-the-Main, he defeated the French so badly in a sanguinary battle at Minden, on the 1st of August, that they were obliged to abandon Hanover and Westphalia, and make a hasty retreat across the Rhine. In the battle of Minden the French lost 80,000 men.

41. While the war was thus raging in Europe in 1759, conquest shone upon the British arms in North America, where the power of the French was irreparably broken. Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on the western coast of Lake Champlain, were evacuated by their French garrisons, on the approach of an English force under General Amherst, in July; after a siege of more than a month, Fort Niagara was captured by an English force under General William Johnson; and finally, on the 13th of September, the English under General Wolfe, who had besieged Quebec for several months, scaled the Heights of Abraham,

near that city, attacked the French army under Montcalm, and, after a desperate battle, in which both Wolfe and Montcalm were mortally wounded, the French were hopelessly defeated; and on the 18th September, 1759, the city of Quebec was surrendered to the victorious English.

42. The campaign of 1760 opened most disastrously for the King of Prussia. His general, Fouquet, after gallantly maintaining himself for some time in Silesia against a superior Austrian force ^{Prussian Disasters.} under Laudon, was defeated on the 24th of June, at Landshut, with the loss of 8,000 men, either slain or made prisoners. Frederic himself afterwards besieged Dresden, but he was obliged to retire, on the approach of Laudon, with a strong Austrian force, for the relief of the garrison. Laudon, however, failed to wrest Breslau from the Prussians by siege.

43. Frederic now marched into Silesia, to recover that province from the Austrians. While the Austrians and Russians, in number 180,000, were preparing to surround the King of Prussia, and his ^{Battle of Liegnitz.} complete overthrow appeared certain, he suddenly and furiously assailed the astonished Laudon, at the head of the Austrian detachment, at Liegnitz, on the 16th of August. Laudon's force was terribly defeated, with the loss of 10,000 men killed and wounded, before reinforcement under Daun could come to the scene of action. Both Laudon and Daun fled to the Katzbach, and Frederic the Great was again master of Silesia; but Berlin was taken possession of by Austrian and Russian troops, and the hereditary dominions of Frederic were plundered and devastated.

44. Frederic next marched into Saxony, with the view of expelling the Austrians from that country. On the 3d of November, he fiercely attacked the intrenched position of the Austrians under Daun, ^{Battle of Torgau.} at Torgau. After a day of the most frightful

carnage, Frederic gained a complete victory, but at the cost of 14,000 of his gallant troops, who lay dead on the field of battle. The consequence of this battle was that all of Saxony, except Dresden, was again in the hands of the King of Prussia; and the Austrian, Russian, and Swedish forces were obliged to evacuate the Prussian dominions.

45. The year 1760 was signalized by the total subversion of French power in North America. In April of that year, the French made an attempt to recover Quebec, and totally defeated the English in the battle of Sillery, near that city, on the 28th of April; but the attempt to recover the city failed: and on the 8th of September (1760) Montreal, the last stronghold of the French in North America, surrendered to the English general Murray, and, with the fall of that post, the conquest of Canada by the English was complete.

46. Ferdinand VI. of Spain died in 1759, and was succeeded by his son, Charles III., who departed from the peaceful policy of his predecessor by signing with the French court the famous "Family Compact," which bound the two reigning branches of the House of Bourbon to assist each other against the gigantic power of Great Britain. The result of this alliance was to subject Spain to a series of disasters to those suffered by France.

47. The campaign of 1761, which was distinguished by no important battle, was disastrous to Frederic the Great. The Austrians under Laudon captured Schweidnitz, and regained possession of Silesia, while the Russians overpowered the Prussian detachments in Pomerania. While the King of Prussia was struggling against the united power of Austria, France, Russia, and Sweden, on the Continent of Europe, his powerful ally, Great Britain, was triumphant over the

**The War in
North
America.**

**"Family
Compact"
of the Bour-
bons.**

**Campaign of
1761—Peace-
ful Disposi-
tion of Eng-
land.**



French and the Spaniards on the ocean, and in the East and West Indies. Belleisle, on the very coast of France, was captured by the British navy; and Pondicherry, the capital of the French possessions in India, surrendered to the English. Cuba and the Philippine Islands were taken from the Spaniards by powerful British naval armaments. The English people had now grown extremely tired of the war in Germany; and after the accession of George III. to the British throne, in October, 1760, the English Government, under the direction of the Earl of Bute, had shown itself ardently anxious for peace, even at the cost of abandoning the cause of the King of Prussia.

48. It now appeared that Frederic the Great must fall before the overwhelming power of Austria and Russia; but in January, 1762, the Empress Elizabeth of Russia, Frederic's implacable enemy, died, and was succeeded by Peter III., who ardently admired the talents and courage of Frederic, and who immediately concluded a treaty of peace and alliance with the Prussian warrior-king, and sent Russian troops to the assistance of the Prussians.

49. Encouraged by the happy circumstances in which he so suddenly and unexpectedly found himself, the King of Prussia made the Austrians feel the effects of his vengeance by reëntering Silesia, defeating Daun at Buckersdorf, and recapturing Schweidnitz, which again gave him possession of Silesia. Frederic next invaded Bohemia, destroyed the Austrian magazines at Prague, burned the city of Eger, and terribly ravaged the country. A Spanish army invaded Portugal, the ally of England, but was driven back by an English force which had been sent to the assistance of the Portuguese. The Czar Peter III. had been deposed in January, 1762, by his wicked wife, who then made herself sole sovereign of Russia, with the title of Catharine II. The unfortunate Peter soon afterward died in prison, supposed

Death of the
Empress
Elizabeth of
Russia.

Accession of
Frederic the
Great in
1762.

to have been assassinated at the instigation of Catharine. The new Empress immediately renounced the alliance with Frederic the Great, declared herself neutral with respect to the war in Germany, and recalled the Russian armies from Prussia. Sweden had already made peace with Prussia.

50. On the 10th of February, 1763, England, France, Spain, and Portugal concluded treaties of peace at Paris, by which they agreed to observe neutrality with regard to the war between Austria and Prussia. The terms of the Peace of Paris were most humiliating to France. Nova Scotia, Canada, and other French possessions in North America were surrendered to Great Britain. Louisiana was ceded to Spain, in consideration of the losses sustained by that power in the war. Spain ceded Florida to England, in exchange for Cuba, which had been captured by the British navy. Austria and Prussia, thus left to continue the war themselves, soon agreed to a treaty of peace, which was signed at Hubertsburg, on the 21st of February, 1763, leaving the province of Silesia, for which so much blood had been shed, in the possession of Frederic the Great. Thus England and Prussia came forth victorious from a long struggle against the combined Powers of Europe.

51. By the result of this war, France, weakened and exhausted, had sunk far below the commanding position which she had formerly occupied, and her prestige was gone; while Great Britain took her place as the leading commercial and naval power of the world. The German Empire had long been a rotten structure, and the Peace of Hubertsburg made its weakness clearly manifest. About three hundred and fifty states, of which the Empire was composed, exercised the rights of sovereignty, and were almost independent of the Emperor, whose authority over

Peace of
Paris—Peace
of Huberts-
burg.

Result of the
war—Decay
of the Ger-
man Empire.

the different Princes of the Empire was little more than nominal. While the German Empire was thus in a decaying condition, the young Kingdom of Prussia, under its illustrious sovereign, Frederic the Great, had already taken its place as one of the leading Powers of Europe. During the twenty-four years of Frederic's reign after the Seven Years' War, Prussia enjoyed the greatest prosperity.

CHAPTER XCVIII.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

PARTITIONS OF POLAND AND RUSSO-TURKISH WARS.—REIGN OF FREDERIC THE GREAT AND CATHERINE II.

1. WHILE France, under her profligate monarch, Louis XV., was declining in national power and greatness, and while Prussia, under the illustrious Frederic the Great, had attained a leading position among the great powers of the earth, Russia, under her great Empress, Catherine II., exercised a preponderant influence in Eastern Europe. The two great objects of Catherine's ambition were the tottering Republic of Poland and the declining Ottoman Empire; and her whole political policy was one of aggression and territorial aggrandizement. Catherine II. devoted considerable attention to measures for the civilization of her subjects, and founded many schools and academies. In her private character the Empress was dissolute and immoral; she left the government of her Empire to her favorites, the chief of whom was Potemkin the Taurian; and the court of St. Petersburg was as much distinguished for its luxury, immorality, and debauchery as was that of Versailles.

2. The Republic of Poland was becoming weaker and weaker every day. The decline of this nation was attributable to its internal dissensions, in consequence of its elective constitution. Every election for king was a scene of the greatest contention and the most violent proceedings.

Decline of
Poland—
Stanislaus
Poniatowski,

On the death of Augustus, III., in 1764, the Polish nobles, through the influence, and at the dictation, of Russia's great Empress, elected Stanislaus Poniatowski king of Poland.

8. It was about this time that the Dissidents, as all Polish Protestants and adherents of the Greek Church were called, petitioned the Polish Diet for the restoration of the civil and religious privileges of which they had been deprived by the Diets of 1717 and 1733. The Roman Catholic majority in the Diet, through the influence of the Polish clergy, rejected the petition, whereupon the Dissidents formed a league known as "The Confederation of Radovi," and, with the aid of Russia, they determined to obtain the desired privileges by force.

4. The Diet of Poland was compelled by Russian troops to concede to the Dissidents the rights which they demanded; whereupon the Polish Catholics formed the "Confederation of Bar" in opposition to that of Radovi, for the purpose of again depriving the Dissidents of their civil and religious rights, and liberating Poland from Russian supremacy. A bloody civil war ensued between the two Confederations. With the assistance of a Russian army, the Confederation of Radovi came forth triumphant. Bar and Cracow, the strongholds of the Bar confederates, were carried by assault. The defeated forces fled into the Turkish territories, closely pursued by the victorious Russians. (1768.)

5. The violation of Turkish territory by the Russians, in the pursuit of the defeated and retreating Poles, caused the Ottoman Porte to declare war against Russia; and for six years (1768-1774) a sanguinary land and naval war raged between the Turks and the Russians. After achieving two great victories, the Russians under Romanzoff conquered the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia; and

Civil war in Poland.

War between Russia and Turkey.

in 1770, the Turkish town of Bender was taken by storm. Bloody battles were fought between the Russians and the Turks in the Morea, or Southern Greece, on the coast of which a Turkish fleet was destroyed by fire. (1771.)

6. Convinced of the weakness of Poland, and anxious for an increase of their own respective territories, the neighboring powers resolved to divide a portion of the Polish Republic among themselves. After a personal interview between,

First partition of Poland.

Joseph II. of Austria and Frederic the Great of Prussia, and a visit of Prince Henry of Prussia to St. Petersburg, a treaty of partition was agreed upon by Austria, Prussia, and Russia, (August 5, 1772), by which these three powers seized those portions of Poland adjoining their own dominions. The Polish Diet protested before the whole world against this iniquitous scheme,—this most audacious violation of the rights of nations. Surrounded and threatened by Russian troops, the Diet at length yielded to force, and consented to the dismemberment of Poland. Thus the Polish provinces watered by the Vistula were taken by Prussia; Galicia was seized by Austria; and the territories of the Dnieper were absorbed by Russia.

7. The war between Russia and Turkey was terminated in 1774, by the Peace of Kudschuck Kainardsche, by the terms of which the right of passage through the Dardanelles was conceded to Russia, and the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia were placed under Russian protection.

Peace of Kudschuck Kainardsche.

8. In 1774 a formidable rebellion against the Empress Catharine II., headed by Pugatscheff, a Don Cossack, broke out in the region of the Volga; but the revolt was speedily suppressed, and Pugatscheff was beheaded in Moscow, in 1775. In 1782, the Kalmuck Tartars, 500,000 in number, affronted at the Russian Empress, abandoned their homes in European Russia, and, wandering eastward several

Pugatscheff's Rebellion.

thousand miles, settled themselves in the dominions of the Emperor of China.

9. Russian ambition was not satisfied with the defeat of the Turks. In 1783, the Russian forces under Potemkin conquered the Nogai Tartars of the Crimea, and annexed that country, with other territories on the Black Sea, under the name of Tauris, to Russia.

10. The evident design of the Empress Catharine II. of expelling the Turks from Europe, and founding a new Christian empire, with Constantinople for its capital, and a member of the imperial House of Romanoff for its prince, and the aggressive conduct of Russia in the region of the Black Sea, alarmed the Ottoman Porte; and another bloody land and naval war broke out between Russia and Turkey in 1787, and lasted five years. Joseph II. of Austria participated in the war, as an ally of the Russian Empress. The Austrian forces under Laudon defeated the Turks on the Danube, and subdued portions of Servia and Wallachia; while, at the same time, conquest shone upon the Russian arms. In December, 1788, the Russians under Potemkin took the strong city of Oczakow, after a furious assault, in which many lives were sacrificed; and in December, 1790, a Russian army under the cruel Suwarrow, carried by storm the fortress of Ismail, and caused 20,000 Turks to be put to the sword.

11. England and Prussia assumed a menacing attitude toward Russia, in consequence of her aggressive policy, and the success of her arms against the Turks; and in 1788, King Gustavus III. of Sweden formed an alliance with the Sultan, and began a land and naval war against Russia. After sustaining several defeats, the Swedes gained a great naval victory in the Baltic sea; but Catharine II. succeeded in making an equitable peace with Sweden, in 1790. The able Gus-

Russian Conquest of the Crimea.

War of Russia and Austria against Turkey.

War between Sweden and Russia.

tavus III. had aroused the discontents of his subjects by his war with Russia; and in 1792, he was assassinated at a masquerade, by Ankarstrom, one of his former guard-officers.

12. The Empress of Russia closed her second war with the Turks by the Peace of Jassy, in January, 1792, by which the Porte ceded the territories of the **Peace of Jassy.** Dniester to Russia. Peace had previously been made between Austria and Turkey.

13. Poland was at this time endeavoring to free herself from Russian domination. With the support of Prussia, the Poles dissolved "The Perpetual Council," which the Russians had established **New Polish constitution.** at Warsaw to rule the Polish Republic. In 1791, a new constitution was adopted, by which Poland was changed from an elective kingdom to an hereditary monarchy with two legislative chambers. The Polish king took an oath to observe and defend this constitution, which was applauded by all Europe, with the exception of Russia.

14. A party of Polish nobles, who were dissatisfied with the new constitution, formed "The Confederation of Targowicz," for the purpose of restoring the **War of the Poles against Russia.** elective constitution. This party received the aid of the Russian Empress, who immediately sent an army into Poland. Prussia, which had just been in alliance with the Polish patriots, now sided with Russia in the contest, on the ground that the principles of French republicanism were embodied in the new Polish constitution. The illustrious Thaddeus Kosciuszko, who had nobly fought for freedom in America, became the chief of the patriot party, and led the Polish army against the Russians, by whom he was defeated at Dubienka, on the 17th of July, 1792. The Polish king, now becoming alarmed, renounced hostilities against Russia, and joined the Confederation of Targowicz. The gallant Polish pa-

trials, whose efforts were paralyzed by the cowardice and irresolution of their king, fled from their country, burning with wrath against their Russian oppressors.

16. In 1793, Russia and Prussia determined upon a second partition of Poland, assigning as a reason that the principles of the French revolutionists were fast gaining ground in that country. The Polish Diet, which resolutely but vainly, opposed itself to the new treaty of partition, was surrounded by Russian troops, who violently carried off the boldest speakers. A second division of the Polish Republic then followed, between Russia and Prussia. The Eastern Polish provinces of Volhynia, Podolia, Lithuania, Ukraine, and Little Poland were taken by Russia: Great Poland and Dantzic went to Prussia.

Second Partition of Poland.

16. The stolen provinces were immediately occupied by Russian and Prussian troops. Ingelstrom, the Russian ambassador at Warsaw, was the virtual ruler of Poland. A conspiracy was formed, in the spring of 1794, by the Polish patriots, for the purpose of reconquering the lost territories, and restoring the constitutional government. Kosciuszko and the emigrant Poles returned to their country, and placed themselves at the head of the patriot party. Ingelstrom's palace at Warsaw was burned to the ground, the Russian troops who occupied Warsaw were made prisoners or put to death, and four of the Polish supporters of the Russian supremacy perished on the scaffold. The Prussian forces which had advanced against Warsaw were driven back by the Poles under Kosciuszko, Dombrowski, and Joseph Poniatowski, the king's nephew. The Empress Catharine II. was determined to crush the Polish rising, and a large Russian army under Suwarrow soon appeared in Poland. In a sanguinary engagement at Macziewice, on the 10th of October, 1794, Kosciuszko was defeated by the Russians, and, falling wounded from his horse, with the exclamation

War of the Poles against Russia and Prussia.

tion, "The end of Poland!" was made a prisoner. Praga was taken by storm by Suwarrow, on the 4th of November, 1794, and 12,000 defenseless persons were killed, or drowned in the Vistula. Warsaw was forced to surrender to the victorious Russians, and King Stanislaus Poniatowski was compelled to abdicate the throne of Poland. He took up his residence in St. Petersburg, where he was supported by a pension from the Russian government, until his death, which occurred in 1798.

17. A partition of what remained of the Republic of Poland, between Austria, Russia, and Prussia, took place in 1795. Austria obtained the Southern part of the Republic with Cracow; Prussia took the territory west of the Vistula with Warsaw; and Russia seized the remainder. Thus the once powerful Poland ceased to exist as an independent power, — a victim to its own internal dissensions, and to the rapacity of its neighbors. Kosciuszko was released by the Emperor Paul, Catharine's successor, and he died in Switzerland in 1817. His remains were conveyed to Cracow.

Third partition of Poland.

CHAPTER XCIX.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

GENERAL AFFAIRS IN EUROPE.

1. THE Seven Years' War left England oppressed with a heavy debt, and consequently burdened the English people with the most oppressive taxes. Party spirit was extremely violent, and the kingdom, at one time appeared to be on the verge of civil war. King George II. died in October, 1760, and was succeeded on the British throne by his grandson, George III., who dismissed the Whigs from office, and placed the government of the British Empire in the hands of the Tories, with the Earl of Bute as Prime Minister. Heavy duties on certain articles of home manu-

Party Contest, in England—John Wilkes.

facture created a universal ferment throughout Great Britain, which resulted in the resignation of the Earl of Bute, and the elevation of George Grenville, also a Tory, to the head of the British Government. But Mr. Grenville was as unpopular as his predecessor had been, and one of the first acts of his administration was the arrest and prosecution of John Wilkes, editor of "The North Briton," and a member of the House of Commons, for asserting in his journal that the King's speech to Parliament contained a falsehood. The judges of the Court of Common Pleas decided that the commitment of Mr. Wilkes was illegal, and that his privileges as a member of Parliament had been infringed. Wilkes was afterwards outlawed by the House of Commons, for failing to appear to answer the charges against him; but subsequently this sentence of outlawry was reversed, and Wilkes was four times chosen to Parliament, by the electors of the County of Middlesex, but the House of Commons as often rejected him.

2. The island of Corsica, which belonged to the Republic of Genoa, had for many years been engaged in a war for its independence. The insurgent Corsicans, led by the gallant Paschal Paoli, defeated every attempt of the Genoese to reduce them to submission. When the Genoese became convinced that they could not restore their authority in the revolted island, they sold Corsica to France. Paoli bravely resisted the French, and, after being forced to yield, he retired to England; and Corsica came into the possession of France in 1769.

3. The attempt of the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, upon the death of the Elector Maximilian Joseph of Bavaria, in 1777, to enlarge the hereditary Austrian dominions by the acquisition of a large portion of Bavaria and the Palatinate, aroused the jealousy of Frederic the Great, who sent an army into Bohemia, and the result was a short contest be

**Conquest of
Corsica by
France.**

**War of the
Bavarian
Succession.**

tween Austria and Prussia, known as "The War of the Bavarian Succession." After a few slight skirmishes, peace was concluded, Joseph II. relinquishing his ambitious designs. (1779.)

4. Several laws passed by the British Parliament in 1780, removing political disabilities on Catholics, produced the most shameful riots in some of the leading cities of Great Britain, particularly in Edinburgh and London. In June, 1780, an immense mob, aroused by the fanatical Lord George Gordon, assembled in St. George's Fields, London, and held control of the city for several days, during which the greatest outrages were perpetrated, and Roman Catholic chapels, the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, and the Fleet were burned. The riot was only suppressed when the military were called out, and after 250 of the mob had been killed or wounded.

The Gordon, or "No-Popery Riots in London.

5. After the death of his mother, Maria Theresa, in 1780, Joseph II. made another attempt to acquire Bavaria and the Palatinate; but the King of Prussia frustrated the designs of the Emperor by establishing an "Alliance of German Princes."

Alliance of German Princes.

Before this princely alliance could produce any important result, Frederic the Great died at Potsdam in May, 1786, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic William II.

6. In 1784, a democratic insurrection broke out in Holland against the Stadtholder's authority. The rebellion continued for several years, and order was only restored in 1787, by an army which had been sent to the Stadtholder's assistance by King Frederic William II. of Prussia, brother to the Stadtholder's wife.

Rebellion in Holland.

7. Joseph II., who upon the death of his father, Francis in 1765, became Emperor of Germany, and upon that of his mother, Maria Theresa, in 1780, became sovereign of the hereditary Austrian

Reforms of the Emperor Joseph II.

territories, undertook various reforms in ecclesiastical, civil, and political matters. He granted religious toleration, allowing the Protestants the free exercise of their worship, and giving them equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. He limited the number of convents, and applied the property of the Church to the improvement of schools and to beneficent purposes.

8. The attempts of Joseph II. to introduce his reforms into the Austrian Netherlands (now Belgium), produced a formidable rebellion in that country against Austrian authority. The attempted introduction of Joseph's reforms into Hungary led to a general insurrection in that country also. Grief and irritation at these events hurried the noble-hearted Emperor, whose health had been seriously injured while warring with the Turks in the region of the Danube, to his grave. He died in 1790, and his brother, Leopold II., who then succeeded to the thrones of Austria and Germany, restored quiet in the Austrian Netherlands, and in Hungary, by abolishing most of the obnoxious reforms of his well-meaning predecessor. Leopold II. died in 1792, and Francis II. succeeded to the sovereignty of the hereditary Austrian territories, and to the imperial throne of Germany.

9. In 1787, Warren Hastings, Governor-General of British India, was impeached by the British House of Commons, for misgovernment and oppression of the people of India. The trial of Mr. Hastings by the House of Lords lasted a period of eight years, and ended in the acquittal of the accused. During this celebrated trial the great statesmen, Burke, Fox, and Sheridan distinguished themselves by their oratory.

10. In 1798, a rebellion against British power commenced in Ireland. After some battles and frightful mas-

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both parties, the authority of the Government was fully restored. On January, 1801, a legislative union took place between England and Ireland. In 1803, an insurrection, headed by a young enthusiast, Robert Emmett, broke out in Dublin. The insurgents were easily overcome, and Emmett was tried and hanged for treason.

CHAPTER C.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

CONQUESTS OF THE ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

1. IN the year 1600 an association of English merchants received a charter from Queen Elizabeth, and were incorporated the English East India Company. Under the auspices of this corporation, English trading-posts and settlements were established in Hindoostan during the seventeenth century. In 1639, the important city of Madras was granted to the Company by its native prince; in 1661 Bombay was purchased from the Portuguese; and in 1699 an English settlement was made at Calcutta, where Fort William was erected.

The English
East-India
Company.

2. From the beginning of the eighteenth century, the English East India Company had meddled in the disputes and wars between the native princes of Hindoostan, with the view of ultimately establishing its supremacy in that quarter of the globe. In 1756 Surajah Dowlah, a native prince, declared war against the Company, and, after a vigorous siege, took Calcutta, with its garrison of 146 English troops. No sooner had the garrison surrendered, than they were crowded into a narrow prison, eighteen feet square, called "The Black Hole of Calcutta," where all but twenty died before the following morning.

War with
Surajah
Dowlah—
"The Black
Hole of Cal-
cutta."



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3. Calcutta was recaptured in 1757, by an English force under Colonel Clive, who had rapidly risen, by the force of his own talents, from the humble position of clerk of the Company, to the position of commander-in-chief of its forces. The rich city of Hoogly was captured and plundered by an expedition sent by Clive. The power of Surajah Dowlah was thoroughly broken by Colonel Clive, in the celebrated Battle of Plassey, fought on the 23d of June, 1757, and the East India Company gained the ascendancy in Southern India.

4. In 1767 the East India Company became involved in a war with Hyder Ali, who had raised himself, by his abilities, from an obscure condition, to the throne of Mysore, a powerful kingdom in Southern Hindoostan, which he had enlarged by conquests in all directions. The Company was obliged to consent to a peace in 1769.

5. In 1780 Hyder Ali renewed hostilities against the East India Company, and spread desolation through a large portion of their territories. An English force was entirely cut to pieces by Tippoo Saib, the valiant son of Hyder Ali; but afterwards, Hyder Ali himself was completely defeated by a body of English troops under Sir Eyre Coote, at Cuddalore. In 1782 Hyder Ali died, and was succeeded on the throne of Mysore, by his son, Tippoo Saib, who continued the war against the Company until 1784, when a treaty of peace was made.

6. In 1790 another war broke out between Tippoo Saib and the East India Company. In 1791 Lord Cornwallis, then Governor-General of British India, laid siege to Bangalore, which he finally took by storm. In 1792 Lord Cornwallis thoroughly defeated Tippoo Saib in front of Seringapatam, the capital of his king-

dom. Soon afterward, a treaty of peace was concluded, by which the East India Company obtained a large increase of territory.

7. In the early part of 1799 Tippoo Saib renewed the war against the Company, for the purpose of expelling the English from India. The English forces laid siege to Seringapatam, which they carried by assault, on the 4th of May, 1799. The valiant Tippoo Saib was slain in the conflict, and his kingdom was annexed to the territories of the East India Company.

East War
with Tippoo
Saib.

8. In 1803 the Company was involved in a war with the Mahrattas. The English, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the great Duke of Wellington, defeated the Mahrattas in the battle of Assaye. Delhi and Agra were carried by storm, and the war ended in the prostration of the Mahratta power before the supremacy of the English East India Company.

War with the
Mahrattas—
Battle of
Assaye.

CHAPTER CI.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

ANGLO-FRENCH COLONIAL WARS.—FRENCH SETTLEMENTS IN NORTH AMERICA.
—KING WILLIAM'S WAR.—QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.—KING GEORGE'S WAR.—THE
FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

1. WHILE the English were colonizing the Atlantic coast of North America, from New England to Georgia, the French were exploring and settling the valley of the St. Lawrence, the shores of the Great Lakes, and the valley of the Mississippi. In 1605 the Huguenot DeMonts founded the first permanent French settlement in North America, at Port Royal (now Annapolis), in Nova Scotia, giving the territory, now known as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the name "Acadia."

French Ex-
plorations in
North Amer-
ica—Found-
ing of Acadia
by DeMonts.

2. In 1608, Samuel Champlain, a Frenchman, founded the city of Quebec, on the St. Lawrence River; and in the following year (1609) he discovered the beautiful lake, between the present States of Vermont and New York, which bears his name.

**Founding of
Quebec by
Samuel
Champlain.**

Champlain and his followers allied themselves with the Huron and Algonquin Indians, and defeated their foes, the Five Nations of New York. Thenceforth the Five Nations were the firm friends of the English and the bitter enemies of the French.

3. In 1679 James Marquette, a French Jesuit, and Louis Joliet, a French Canadian, entered the Mississippi River from the Wisconsin, and, in two birch-bark canoes, sailed down the great river to a point below the mouth of the Arkansas. In

**Explorations
of the Missis-
sippi.**

1682, Robert de LaSalle, a French Canadian officer, after exploring the shores of the Great Lakes, entered the Mississippi from the Illinois, and sailed up the mighty stream almost to its source, and then down to its mouth, and naming the entire Mississippi valley, "Louisiana," in honor of his king, Louis XIV., claimed that extensive region for France.

4. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in the beginning of the eighteenth, the French made settlements on the banks of the Mississippi River, on the shores of the Great Lakes, and on the coasts of the Gulf of Mexico. Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois, was founded in

**French Settle-
ments in the
Mississippi
Valley.**

1683; Detroit, in Michigan, in 1701; and Vincennes, in Indiana, in 1705. In 1699, a company of French colonists, headed by Lemoine d'Iberville, a French Canadian, settled Biloxi, in the present State of Mississippi; and in 1702, most of the settlers of Biloxi, founded the city of Mobile in the present Alabama.

5. In 1712 Louisiana was leased, for a stated period, to Anthony Crozat, a wealthy French merchant, under

whose auspices was built Fort Rosalie,—the beginning of the present city of Natchez, in Mississippi. In 1717 Crozat relinquished his lease; and Louisiana was for fifteen years under the control of the Mississippi Company, which the Scotchman, John Law, had organized in France. Bienville, the governor sent to Louisiana by this Company, founded New Orleans, in 1718.

*Louisiana
under Anthony
Crozat.*

6. In 1729 the Natchez Indians, exasperated at the threatened encroachments of the French, fell upon the French settlement at Fort Rosalie, massacred the men and carried the women into captivity. In revenge for this outrage, a body of French troops almost exterminated the Natchez, the following year. (1730.) A few years later, the French made two unsuccessful attempts to subjugate the warlike Chickasaws, another powerful Indian tribe. The French built a chain of forts between Montreal and New Orleans, the most important of which were Detroit, erected in 1701; Niagara, in 1726; and Crown Point in 1730.

*War with
the Natchez
Indians.*

7. The war that broke out between England and France in 1689 extended to the English and French colonies in North America, and is known in American history as "King-William's War," because it occurred during the reign of William III. in England. The Indians of Canada and Acadia aided the French, while the Five Nations, of New York, assisted the English.

*Both parties
aided by the
Indians.*

8. In July, 1690, the town of Dover, in New Hampshire, was attacked by the French and their Indian allies; and in February, 1690, Schenectady, in New York, was burned, and sixty of its inhabitants were massacred by the French and the Indians.

*Attack on
Dover—Des-
truction of
Schenectady.*

9. In May, 1690, the New England colonies sent a naval expedition, under Sir William Phipps, which plun-

New England expedition against the French. dered the French colony of Acadia. The same year, a land expedition, under a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, proceeded to attack Montreal, while a naval force, under Sir William Phipps, was sent against Quebec. Both expeditions were failures. The people of New England suffered terribly from the attacks of the French and their savage allies, until the Peace of Ryswick was concluded between England and France, in 1697.

10. In 1702 a war broke out between England and France which extended to the colonies of those nations in North America. This war, called in Europe "The War of the Spanish Succession," is known in American history as "Queen Anne's War," so called because it happened during the reign of Queen Anne in England. The French and Indians again spread desolation among the English settlements. Deerfield, in Massachusetts, was burned, and its inhabitants were massacred by the savages and their French allies.

Desolation of English settlements. 11. In 1710 a fleet from England, aided by a land force from New England, captured Port Royal, in Acadia. Port Royal was named Annapolis, and Acadia became an English province, under the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. In 1711 a fleet and army from England, under Sir Hovenden Walker, assisted by New Englanders, the whole expedition consisting of 5,000 men, proceeded against Québec. The vessels were wrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and 1,000 men perished. The expedition was abandoned, and the Peace of Utrecht was concluded between England and France, in 1713.

Conquest of Acadia. 12. In 1744, another war began between England and France, known in Europe as "The War of the Austrian Succession," but in American history as "King George's War," because it took place

while George II. was King of Great Britain. The principal event of this war in America was the capture of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton. In April, 1745, Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, sent an army, under General William Pepperell, against this fortress, on account of its strength called "The Gibraltar of America." The army, in conjunction with a British fleet under Admiral Warren, laid siege to the fortress late in May, and on the 28th of June (1745), Louisburg and the island of Cape Breton were surrendered to the English.

13. In 1746 the French sent a powerful fleet, under the Duke d'Anville, to retake Louisburg. The greater part of this fleet was destroyed by storms, and the enterprise was abandoned. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, concluded between England and France in 1748, put an end to the war.

D'Anville's attempt to recover Louisburg.

14. The three wars between the English and the French in North America, the accounts of which we have just considered, had their origin in the European disputes of France and England. The fourth and last war, and one which ended in the overthrow of the French power in North America, originated in disputes about the boundaries between the French and English colonial possessions. After the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the French built forts in the rear of the English colonies, for the purpose of confining the English to the country east of the Alleghany mountains.

English and French colonial possessions in North America.

15. In 1749 the King of Great Britain granted 600,000 acres of land on the south side of the Ohio River to an association of English and Virginia speculators, called "The Ohio Company." The surveyors and traders sent out by the Company were made prisoners by the French. This aggressive conduct led to open hostilities.

The Ohio Company.

16. The French under St. Pierre built three forts in

North-western Pennsylvania; one at Presque Isle, now Erie; another at Le Boeuf, now Waterford; and a third at the site of the present town of Franklin. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, sent George Washington, a young Virginian, twenty-one years of age, with a remonstrance to St. Pierre, the French commander. St. Pierre, who said that he acted under the orders of DuQuesne, Governor of Canada, refused to withdraw his troops from the domain of the Ohio Company, as requested by Dinwiddie.

17. When it was known in Virginia that St. Pierre refused to withdraw his troops from the territory granted to the Ohio Company, a body of Virginians under Major George Washington was sent to expel the invaders. Washington moved toward the Ohio, and in the present Fayette county, in Pennsylvania, he built Fort Necessity. On the 28th of May, 1754, he defeated the French and killed their leader, Jumonville, in the battle of the Great Meadows. This was the first bloodshed in the long and distressing French and Indian war.

18. Already the French had seized a fort which the English had been engaged in building at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers, and named it "Fort DuQuesne," in honor of the Governor of Canada. Washington was at length besieged by the French at Fort Necessity. On the 4th of July, 1754, he surrendered to the French, who allowed him and all his troops to march back to Virginia.

19. On the day of the capitulation of Fort Necessity, (July 4, 1754), a congress composed of delegates from six of the Anglo-American colonies, convened at Albany, in the province of New York, for the purpose of devising measures for protection against the encroachments of the French. A plan of union

Washington's mission.

Battle of the Great Meadows.

Capitulation of Fort Necessity.

Colonial Congress at Albany.

drawn up by Dr. Benjamin Franklin was rejected both by the home government and the colonial assemblies.

20. In 1755 Edward Braddock, a distinguished Irish officer, was sent to America as commander-in-chief of the English forces there. Three expeditions against the French were projected; one was to proceed against the French forts in Nova Scotia; another under Braddock was to drive the French from Fort DuQuesne; and a third under Governor Shirley of Massachusetts was to move against Fort Niagara.

**Braddock,
Commander-
in Chief.**

21. An English force of 3,000 men, under General Winslow, landed at the head of the Bay of Fundy, in June, 1755, where they were joined by 300 regulars, under Colonel Monckton, who assumed the chief command. The expedition took Fort Beausejour from the French on the 16th of June, and Fort Gaspereau on the 17th. The English disgraced themselves by their cruel treatment of the Acadians, many of whom they sent away and distributed among the English colonists.

**Capture of
French forts
in Nova
Scotia.**

22. In June, 1755, General Braddock, with 2,000 men, marched against the French at Fort DuQuesne. On the 9th of July, when within twelve miles of Fort DuQuesne, the English were attacked by the French and the Indians. Braddock was killed, and his troops were completely defeated. Of all the mounted officers on the side of the English, Major Washington alone remained unhurt. After the fall of Braddock, Washington assumed the command of the English troops, and conducted them back to Virginia. Thus, the expedition against Fort DuQuesne was a total failure.

**Defeat and
death of
Braddock.**

23. The expedition under Shirley against Fort Niagara was also a complete failure. The expedition went only as far as Oswego, where Shirley built a new fort; and storms, sickness, and desertions of his In-

**Failure of
Shirley's ex-
pedition.**

dian allies, caused him to abandon the object of the expedition.

24. In August, 1755, an English army under Sir William Johnson marched against Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point, which the French had erected on the western shores of Lake Champlain. A part of Johnson's force, under Colonel Williams, was defeated, on the 8th of September, by the French under Baron Dieskau. After this fight, in which Williams was killed, Dieskau moved forward and fought with Johnson the battle of Lake George. In this battle, Dieskau was defeated, wounded, and taken prisoner. After the battle, Johnson built Fort William Henry, and garrisoned it, as well as Fort Edward, with some of his troops, after which he returned to Albany, and dispersed his army.

25. In May, 1756, England declared war against France, and formed an alliance with Frederic the Great of Prussia, in his war with France, Austria, Russia, Sweden, and Saxony; and thus arose the great "Seven Years' War." The inefficient Lord Loudon was sent to America to take the chief command of the English forces there.

26. In August, 1756, the Marquis de Montcalm, with a body of French and Indians, crossed Lake Ontario from Canada, and captured the English forts at Oswego, with 1,400 prisoners. The only thing accomplished by the English in 1756, was the chastisement of the Indians in Western Pennsylvania. On the 8th of September, Colonel John Armstrong fell upon the savages at Kittanning, their chief town on the Alleghany river, killed their principal chiefs, and destroyed the village.

27. In Northern New York, a force of French and Indians, under Montcalm, marched against Fort William Henry, in August, 1757. Colonel Monro, who com-

manded the small English force which gar- **Surrender of Fort William Henry.**
 risoned the fort, called upon General Webb, the English commander at Fort Edward, for assistance. The cowardly Webb refused any aid, and the gallant Monro was compelled to surrender, after a brave defense. After their surrender, the English troops were allowed to march out with the honors of war, but no sooner had they left the fort under promise of protection, than despite the efforts of Montcalm to prevent it, many of them were massacred by the Indians in the French army. Montcalm expressed great sorrow at this sad occurrence.

28. In the summer of 1757, William Pitt, the ablest statesman in England, was placed at the head of the British Government. Energy and forecast marked **William Pitt, Prime Minister of England.** every movement of Mr. Pitt's administration, and from this time until its close, the war was favorable to the English, who, after a series of brilliant successes, finally enabled to effect the permanent conquest of the French American possessions. In 1757, General Abercrombie was sent to America, to take the chief command of the English forces there.

29. Early in July, 1758, Generals Amherst and Wolfe, with English troops, and Admiral Boscawen, with a British squadron, laid siege to Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton. After a vigorous **Siege and capture of Louisburg.** siege, Louisburg, and the Island of Cape Breton, were surrendered to the English, on the 26th of July, 1758.

30. At the beginning of July, 1758, an English force of 15,000 men, under General Abercrombie, moved against Ticonderoga. On the 6th, a part of this force, **Unsuccessful attack on Ticonderoga.** under Lord Howe, defeated the French, but Lord Howe was among the slain. Abercrombie continued his advance, and attacked Ticonderoga on the 8th of July, but met with a disastrous repulse. He then fell back, and abandoned the object of the expedi-

tion. On the 27th of August, 1758, Fort Frontenac, on the site of the present city of Kingston, in Canada, was captured by Colonel Bradstreet, at the head of an English force, which had been sent out for that purpose by Abercrombie.

31. In 1758 an English force, under General John Forbes, proceeded against Fort DuQuesne. When within

**Capture of
Fort Du
Quesne.**

fifty miles of the fort, a council of war decided to abandon the enterprise; but when prisoners, who were brought in at this moment, gave every assurance that the garrison of Fort DuQuesne was weak, it was resolved to move forward. A part of the expedition, under Major Grant, had been defeated by the French and Indians, on the 21st of September. Washington and his Virginians led the advance against Fort DuQuesne. The French evacuated the fort on the approach of the English, and fled down the Ohio in boats; and late in November, the English flag waved over Fort DuQuesne, the name of which was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of the great English statesman. The flourishing city of Pittsburg now occupies the site of the fort.

32. The English planned three expeditions for the campaign of 1759; one, under Generals Prideaux and

**Plan of the
campaign.**

Johnson, was to attempt the capture of Fort Niagara; another, under Lord Amherst, was to take possession of Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and, a third, under General James Wolfe, was designed for the reduction of Quebec, the strongest French fortress in America.

33. In July, 1759, the English under Generals Prideaux and Johnson, commenced the siege of Fort Niagara.

**Capture of
Fort Niagara.**

On the 15th, Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a mortar; and the command of the English army devolved upon Johnson, who continued the siege until the 25th, when the French surrendered the fort.

34. On the approach of the English army under Lord Amherst, in July, 1759, Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point were evacuated by their French garrisons, and those strong posts were immediately taken possession of by the English.

**Capture of
Ticonderoga
and Crown
Point.**

35. In June, 1759, an English force of 8,000 men, under General Wolfe, arrived before Quebec. For two months, the English besieged the city, and destroyed a large part of it by means of hot shot. On the 31st of July, in the midst of a terrific thunder storm, a portion of the English army, under Colonel Monckton, fought with the French the battle of Montmorenci. At length, a council of war was held by the English officers, and it was resolved to storm the French camp. Accordingly, on the night of the 12th of September, 1759, the English army, led by Wolfe in person, scaled the Heights of Abraham, in the rear of Quebec; and on the morning of the 13th, a furious battle ensued. The commanders of both armies, Wolfe and Montcalm, were slain; and in the city of Quebec stands a fine monument to their memory. The French were completely defeated; and on the 18th September, 1759, Quebec was surrendered to the English.

**Wolfe's expe-
dition—Sur-
render of
Quebec.**

36. In the spring of 1760 a French force under M. Levis, Montcalm's successor, attempted to recover Quebec, and defeated the English army commanded by General Murray, in the bloody battle of Sillery, three miles below Quebec, on the 28th of April, 1760. The English fell back to Quebec, where they were besieged; but the French, becoming alarmed at the supposed approach of a large English fleet, hastily abandoned the siege and retired.

**Attempt of
the French to
recover
Quebec.**

37. On the 8th of September, 1760, Montreal, the last stronghold of the French in America, surrendered to the English army under General Murray, who had collected 18,000 men for the reduction of

**Surrender of
Montreal.**

the city. With the fall of Montreal, the conquest of Canada by the English was completed.

38. On the 10th of February, 1763, a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, between England, France, and Spain. France surrendered to Great Britain all her possessions in North America east of the Alleghany mountains and north of the latitude of Iberville river. Spain ceded the Floridas to Great Britain. Thus closed a most important war,—a war which assigned North America forever to the Anglo-Saxon race.

39. In 1759 the Cherokee Indians in Georgia began a war against the white people of Georgia and the Carolinas. After a war of two years, the Indians were subdued by Colonel Grant. In 1763, Pontiac, a famous Ottawa chief, secretly formed a confederacy of Indian tribes, to expel the English from the country west of the Alleghany mountains. Within a fortnight, this sagacious chief seized all the English posts west of the Alleghanies, except Detroit, Niagara and Fort Pitt. The Indians were soon subdued, and, in 1765, Pontiac was killed, by an Illinois Indian, on the Mississippi River.

CHAPTER CII.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

WAR OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION—(1775-1783).

1. BY the French and Indian War, England, as we have seen, had secured a vast empire in North America. The fairest portion of this colonial empire she was destined soon to lose, on account of her stupid folly and her ungenerous treatment of her colonial subjects. The French and Indian War had oppressed England with an enormous debt, and to relieve her subjects at home, her Ministry and Parliament undertook the scheme of taxing her North American

**Causes of the
American
Revolution—
Tyranny of
Great Britain.**

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colonies. The colonists denied the right of Parliament to tax them, as they were not represented in that body; but the Ministry and Parliament foolishly and obstinately persisted in their schemes. In 1765, the famous Stamp Act was passed, but it met with such violent opposition in English America that it was repealed in the following year; but other equally obnoxious measures were passed by Parliament, and the military were called into requisition to enforce the submission of the colonists. Taxes were levied on various articles imported into the colonies, and the Americans burned with indignation against their oppressors. The democratic spirit which had always prevailed among the Anglo-Americans made them impatient with every appearance of political oppression.

2. The Americans, exasperated at the oppressive measures of the British Ministry and Parliament, finally rose in armed rebellion against the authority of the mother country, and resolved to defend their liberties at all hazards. The first blood in the War of the American Revolution was shed at Lexington and Concord, Massachusetts, April 19th, 1775, when the British troops made an attack upon the Minute-men, as they were called. The battle of Bunker's Hill, June 17th, of the same year, opened the war in dead earnest. The royal governors of the various colonies were expelled by the colonists, and all royal authority was repudiated. The Americans seized Ticonderoga, May 10th, 1775, invaded Canada in September, and seized Montreal; but were disastrously defeated in an assault upon Quebec, on the last day of the year 1775; and in the following year, were entirely driven out of Canada.

Rebellion of
the Americans
—Lexington
and Bunker's
Hill—Invasion
of Canada.

3. As Great Britain was making gigantic efforts to crush the rebellion against her authority in North America, having hired 17,000 Hessians from Germany to conquer the Americans, and having passed new oppressive measures, sentiments of polit-

Declaration
of American
Independence.

ical independence spread among the Americans; and on the 4th of July, 1776, the American Congress declared the Anglo-American colonies free and independent States, under the name of "The United States of America." We avoid giving a detailed account of the events of the war of the American Revolution, as such could not meet with a very high appreciation among Canadians, and would be appropriate only for a work prepared expressly for United States readers.

4. The French nation, still smarting under the defeats and humiliations which she had suffered in the preceding war, waited for a favorable opportunity to assist the Americans in their struggle for independence. From the beginning, the French people had sympathized with the revolted colonists, and prominent individuals in France, such as the young Marquis de Lafayette, volunteered in the cause of American liberty. The other nations of Europe, jealous of England's maritime power, secretly wished for the success of the colonists. The surrender of the British army under General Burgoyne to the American army under General Gates, on the 17th of October, 1777, encouraged the French court to espouse the cause of the struggling patriots; and accordingly, on the 6th of February, 1778, France formed an alliance with the United States, and recognized their independence. War between England and France ensued; and hostilities were prosecuted with vigor, on the ocean, and in the East and West Indies.

5. In June, 1779, thinking the opportunity favorable for recovering the fortress of Gibraltar from the English, Spain declared war against England; and a united French and Spanish fleet laid siege to Gibraltar, while another combined French and Spanish armament attempted an invasion of England. The war between the English and the Spaniards was conducted vigorously, on the ocean, and in the East and West Indies.

France and
England.

War between
England and
Spain.

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6. On the 20th of December, 1780, England declared war against Holland, on learning that a secret treaty had been concluded between the Dutch Republic and the United States. The war between the English and the Dutch was also carried on with great vigor, on the ocean, and in the West and East Indies.

War between
England and
Holland.

7. In 1780 the Empress Catharine II. of Russia, induced the Governments of Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia to unite with her in a maritime league, called "The Armed Neutrality," to guard against encroachments on the commerce of neutral powers by British armed vessels.

Armed neu-
trality against
England.

8. After the opening of the war between France and England, hostilities were prosecuted with energy by the English against the French in India. Pondicherry, the capital of the French possessions in India, was immediately besieged by the English and their Hindoo allies, and, after a spirited defense, was compelled to surrender. Severe fighting also occurred in the West Indies, where powerful fleets were engaged in conquering or defending the possessions of the various contending nations. On the ocean, numerous engagements occurred between the naval forces of Great Britain on one side, and those of France, Spain, and Holland on the other. The British fleets, under Admirals Rodney, Keppel, Graves, Parker, and others, maintained the honor of England on the seas, against the attacks of her combined enemies.

The War on
the Ocean and
in the East
and West
Indies.

9. In the mean time, the war had been carried on with various success, for nearly seven years, on American soil, between the British and the Americans. The Americans, led by the immortal Washington and other valiant leaders, had baffled every attempt of the most powerful nation in the world to subdue them; and finally, on the 19th of Octo-

Surrender of
Cornwallis—
British evac-
uation of
America.

ber, 1781, the British army under Lord Cornwallis was compelled to surrender to the allied American and French forces at Yorktown, Virginia, after a vigorous siege. This great event closed hostilities in America, and the British forces soon evacuated the American shores:

10. Although military operations were thus ended in North America, hostilities were now prosecuted with the

The war between England and her European enemies.

greatest animosity between England and her European enemies. For several years, the war had been conducted with various success by the English, against the French, the Spaniards, and the Dutch, on the ocean and in the East and West Indies. In June, 1781, a bloody but indecisive battle was fought on the Dogger Bank, in the North Sea, between the English fleet, under Admiral Parker, and the Dutch fleet, under Admiral Zoutman. On the 12th of April, 1782, the British fleet under Admiral Rodney defeated the French fleet under the Count de Grasse, in the West Indies, the English losing only 1,100 men, while the French lost 11,000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners, the Count de Grasse being among the prisoners. In 1782 the Spaniards conquered the island of Minorca, after a vigorous defence on the part of the English. The attention of all Europe was attracted to the siege of Gibraltar by the united armies and navies of France and Spain. The fortress had been besieged since 1779, but the besiegers had made no progress in the way of its reduction. The garrison in the fortress consisted of about 7,000 English troops under General Elliot. In November, 1781, the garrison made a successful sally from the fortress, utterly demolishing the enemy's works. After immense preparations, the combined French and Spanish fleets and armies besieging Gibraltar were increased to about 100,000 men; and, on the 13th of September, 1782, a grand attack was opened upon the fortress; but, after the most terrific fighting, the garrison, as

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sisted by the English gunboats, repulsed the attacks of the besiegers. At night, while the fight was still raging fiercely, the Spanish fleet caught fire, and the groans of the Spaniards on board the burning ships were pitiful beyond description. Hereupon the English seamen, with characteristic humanity, forgetting that the Spaniards were their enemies, and thinking of them only as suffering fellow-men, hastened to their rescue, and saved hundreds of them from the perils by which they were surrounded. During the night, the garrison of Gibraltar was relieved by Lord Howe's fleet from England, and the French and the Spaniards relinquished the siege of the impregnable fortress.

11. On the 30th of November, 1782, a preliminary treaty of peace was signed at Paris, between Great Britain and the United States, by which the former acknowledged the independence of the latter. **Peace of Paris—Independence of the United States.** On the 20th of January, 1783, preliminary treaties were signed between England, France, Spain, and Holland. On the 3d of September, 1783, definitive treaties of peace were signed at Paris, between all the belligerent powers, and the United States took its place among the nations of the earth as an independent power, and commenced its glorious career.

CHAPTER CIII.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION—(A. D. 1789-1799).

1. LOUIS XV. had at first secured the esteem of the French people to such an extent that he was surnamed "The Well-beloved." When he was taken seriously ill at Metz, in 1744, the whole kingdom was filled with sorrow; and his recovery was hailed with transports of joy. **Profligacy and debauchery of Louis XV.** But Louis soon lost the affections of his subjects when he plunged into the most excessive vices and riotous de-

bauchery, and left the government of his kingdom to the most profligate and licentious favorites. Of these favorites, Madame Pompadour possessed the greatest influence at court. For twenty years, she controlled the affairs of France, procured the appointment of her favorites to the most responsible offices, used the public revenues for her own private purposes, and determined when the nation should be at peace or war. The favorites of the king encouraged his debauchery, so that he would leave the affairs of state entirely in their hands. As the king grew older his licentiousness increased, so that at length he lost all respect and was regarded with contempt.

2. The voluptuousness and extravagance of the French court, and the unnecessary and expensive wars with the other European states, exhausted the French treasury, increased the public debt, and burdened the French people with the most oppressive taxes. The taxes were all paid by the middle and lower classes, while the nobility and the clergy were exempt from all taxation. In addition to the land and property tax, capitation tax, house tax, and duties upon certain articles, the lower classes had to pay tithes, labor dues, and other feudal taxes to the aristocracy.

3. All laws and decrees respecting taxation, in order to be valid, required registration by the parliament of Paris. Whenever the parliament refused to register or sanction the tax laws and decrees, it became involved in a vehement dispute with the court, which generally ended in a "Bed of Justice," by which the king overcame all opposition and carried his point.

4. Another cause of strife between the court and the parliament were the "*lettres de cachet*," written orders bearing the seal of the king, banishing the person to whom they were addressed, or ordering him to be confined in prison. This

**Taxation,
Tithes, and
Feudal dues.**

**Disputes be-
tween the
King and the
Parliaments.**

**Lettres de
cachet.**

power was greatly abused. Any person hating another, could easily gratify his malice by obtaining, for a certain sum of money, a "*lettre de cachet*," from the ruling favorite of the king, consigning the innocent victim to a lonely dungeon, from which death, in the majority of cases, was the only release. The only check on the absolute power of the king was the parliament of Paris. After a ten years' contention with the parliament, Louis put an end to the matter by causing the most refractory members to be arrested, and, by a series of edicts, deprived the parliaments of all their privileges.

5. The profligate Louis XV. died in 1774, and was succeeded on the throne of France by his grandson, Louis XVI., who was then only twenty years of age. Louis XVI. was a pious prince, and sincerely anxious for the good of the people over whom he reigned; but he lacked the ability and firmness necessary for the circumstances by which he was surrounded. The extravagance and wickedness of the court of Louis XV. had reduced France to a most deplorable condition. The finances of the kingdom were in a disordered state, the public credit was gone, and the great body of the French people were groaning under the most oppressive taxation. The weak king permitted the extravagance and frivolousness of his brothers, the Count of Provence (afterward Louis XVIII.) and the Count of Artois (afterward Charles X.) He also allowed his wife, Marie Antoinette, the daughter of the great Austrian empress, Maria Theresa, to exercise great influence upon the court and government of France. The pride and the haughty conduct of the queen provoked the dislike of the French people, who attributed every unpopular measure to her influence in the affairs of state.

Louis XVI.
and his
Queen, Marie
Antoinette.

6. The prevalent scarcity of money, and the disordered state of the public finances of France, could only be re-

**Disordered
State of the
French
Finances—
Turgot's
Ministry.**

mediated by wise reforms, such as were proposed by Turgot, whom the young king first entrusted with the charge of the finances. But Turgot's measures of economy were bitterly opposed by the extravagant courtiers, and the able minister of finance was obliged to resign his office.

7. Necker, a wealthy Swiss banker, was next appointed to take charge of the French finances. By pursuing the same course which his predecessor had adopted the exposing the financial state of France in a pamphlet, Necker made himself so obnoxious to the French court and aristocracy that he also was obliged to retire from his post (1781).

**Necker's
First
Ministry.**

8. About this time, the War of the American Revolution, in which France took part as ally of the Americans, increased the public debt of France, and excited sentiments of freedom and republicanism among the French people. Such of the French soldiers who served in America carried to France the republican spirit which they had imbibed from their American allies, and imparted to their countrymen the lessons of freedom which they had learned. Many writers in France, especially Rousseau, had advocated republican principles with the greatest eloquence.

9. The vain and extravagant Calonne, who, through the influence of the queen, was now appointed minister of finance, adopted a policy just the reverse of that which had been pursued by the economical Necker. He continued the system of loans long after the termination of the American war, and delighted the queen and the courtiers by giving the most extravagant entertainments; but his resources were at length exhausted, and he saw no other remedy than the taxation of the nobility and the clergy of France. For the purpose of securing the adoption of this course, he called an Assembly of Notables at Versailles, in 1787. After

**Calonne,
Minister of
Finance.**

a long struggle, the project of universal taxation was defeated; and Calonne, threatened with impeachment, resigned his office, and retired from the country.

10. Calonne's successor as minister of finance was Brienne, who found himself obliged to follow the usual method of raising loans and increasing the taxes, in order to cover the deficit in the revenue; but in this he met with the most determined opposition from the parliament of Paris, which refused to register his edicts. The government then arrested the boldest speakers of the parliament, and banished them to Troyes. This proceeding aroused such a storm of indignation among the French people that the government effected a compromise with the banished members, who were again recalled, and the parliaments were again sanctioned.

11. The French people now openly manifested their opposition to the court party. The parliament of Paris was surrounded by noisy multitudes, which denounced the court party, and showed their approval of the course of the opposition members. Brienne, who had incurred the hatred of the people, was daily burned in effigy, and in many towns in the kingdom alarming riots occurred. The people demanded the convocation of the States-General. The government made an effort to put an end to all opposition by changing the parliament into a "*cour plénier*" (plenary court) and several subordinate courts. But the effort to overcome the opposition of the people was useless; and Brienne found himself obliged to resign his situation at a time when the French treasury was destitute of funds, and the French government appeared on the eve of bankruptcy.

12. That great idol of the French people, Necker, was now recalled to the management of the finances of France. His restoration was hailed with acclamations of joy, and confidence was again restored.

Necker procured the repeal of the edicts against the parliament of Paris, and then made arrangements for the assembling of the States-General, an assembly composed of representatives chosen by the three estates, the nobility, the clergy, and the people, which had not met since 1614. A Convention of Notables was first assembled to decide on the preliminaries necessary to the convocation of the States-General. The people demanded, and Necker maintained, that the representatives of the people, or third estate, in the coming meeting of the States-General, should equal the number of representatives of the other two estates taken together. This double representation, after much deliberation, was conceded, and the king fixed the number of representatives at 300 for the nobles, 300 for the clergy, and 600 for the people. The king appointed the ensuing May as the time for the meeting of the States-General.

CHAPTER CIV.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE TIME OF THE FRENCH NATIONAL ASSEMBLY—(1789—1791).

1. The States-General assembled at Versailles on the 5th of May, 1789. Some of the ablest and most distinguished men of France were among its members. At the opening of this great assembly, a difficulty arose as to how the representatives of the three estates should vote. The clergy and the nobility demanded that the three orders should meet in three separate bodies; while the people insisted that the three estates should meet in one body. If they met in separate bodies, every measure, in order to become a law, must receive the approval of two of the estates voting separately. It would, therefore, be an easy matter for the clergy and the nobles, whose interests were almost identical, to unite for the purposes of defeating measures for

Difficulty at the opening of the States-General.

the elevation of the people. On the other hand, if they met in one body, the people, on account of their double representation, would be able to manage everything their own way.

2. After waiting some weeks for the nobility and the clergy to join them, the deputies of the third estate, on the 17th of June, 1789, declared themselves The States-General declare itself a National Assembly. the National Assembly of France, being, as they maintained, the representatives of the great body of the French people. Its ablest members were the Count de Mirabeau and the abbé Sieyès. The astronomer Bailly, the representative of Paris, and a great advocate of popular freedom, was chosen president of the Assembly, which was then joined by a part of the representation of the clergy and the nobles.

8. The National Assembly immediately voted that the present levy of taxes should only continue so long as the Estates remained undissolved, and that they should cease entirely in case of a dissolution A royal session held. of the Estates. This boldness of the Assembly alarmed the court, under whose influence the king appointed a "Royal Session," and closed the hall of the Assembly for several days. When, on the 20th of June, 1789, the members of the Assembly found the halls closed, they proceeded to the Tennis Court, where they made a solemn vow not to separate until they had framed a constitution for the French nation. When, on the 22d of June, the court caused the Tennis Court to be closed, the members of the Assembly proceeded to the church of St. Louis, where they held their meeting. The Royal Session took place on the 23d of June. The king granted some concessions, but threatened vengeance upon the National Assembly, unless the Three Estates met in three distinct bodies. After the close of the Royal Session, the king dissolved the Assembly. The nobility and the clergy obeyed, and immediately withdrew from the hall, but the

deputies of the people kept their seats; and when the king's officer ordered them to withdraw, Comte de Mirabeau arose from his seat and exclaimed, "Sir, have no seat, nor a right to open your lips here. You are not to remind us of the king's desire. Go, tell your master that we sit here by the power of the people of France, and that we will only be driven away at the point of the bayonet." The weak monarch did not attempt to force the refractory deputies to obey, but a few days afterward he advised the nobles and the clergy to unite with the representatives of the people.

4. While the National Assembly was engaged in forming a constitution for the French kingdom, the populace of Paris were kept in a constant state of excitement, by licentious journals, pamphlets, and inflammatory speeches. Unprincipled demagogues delivered violent discourses upon the rights of man, in the streets, in taverns, and particularly in the Palais Royal, the residence of the dissolute Duke of Orleans, the cousin of the king. The people were encouraged to obtain their rights by force. Among the popular orators, was the young enthusiast for popular liberty, Camille Desmoulins. The military in the capital joined the popular side, and became members of the National Guard, a new body of militia, which the people had just organized. The city government of Paris was placed in the hands of the democrats, with Bailly as Mayor.

5. The French court, becoming alarmed at the excited state of the populace of Paris, retired to Versailles, with a small guard composed of German and Swiss troops. The leaders of the people, thinking that the king intended some act of violence, took advantage of the removal of the court to inflame the people of Paris still more. The irresolute king now listened to the indiscreet counsels of his courtiers and nobles:

and a large army under Marshal Broglie was collected between Versailles and the capital. This, instead of intimidating the people, only inflamed their rage. At the same time, Necker, whom the people greatly esteemed, was dismissed from the ministry. The populace of Paris, thinking this preliminary to an intended act of violence on the part of the court, rose as one man. Crowds of the lowest rabble, wearing the newly-adopted national cockade, or tricolor, consisting of red, white, and blue ribbon, marched through the streets of the city; the alarm bell was sounded, the gunsmiths' shops were broken open and plundered, and the whole city was filled with riot and confusion.

6. On the 14th of July, 1789, the populace of Paris, after obtaining 30,000 stand of arms and some cannon from the Hospital of the Invalides, proceeded ^{Storming and} against the Bastille, an old castle used as a ^{capture of the} state prison. The governor, Delaunay, was ^{Bastille.} induced by the garrison in the Bastille to remove the cannon from the fortress, as they only served to increase the fury of the populace. Soon afterwards a deputation from the commune of Paris, headed by the popular leaders, appeared, and demanded an entrance into the Bastille, for the purpose of conferring with the governor. The drawbridge was lowered for the admission of the deputation; but when the mob rushed forward and demanded arms, the drawbridge was closed, and the garrison, by order of the governor, fired upon the multitude. The cries of the wounded and the dying filled the people with ungovernable rage, and they commenced storming the Bastille with fury. The garrison still resisted the advance of their assailants, who, being soon joined by a body of grenadiers, redoubled the vigor of the assault. The governor and the garrison, in despair, at length surrendered, and the populace were completely triumphant. The governor was torn in pieces by the enraged mob, while on his way to the



Hotel de Ville, and his head was carried on a pole through the streets of Paris.

7. The storming and capture of the Bastille by the mob of Paris struck the king and the aristocrats with consternation. The banished Necker was immediately recalled to the ministry, and was received with enthusiastic joy by the people.

Necker recalled—Lafayette.

The king returned to Paris, gave orders for the removal of the troops, appeared before the people with the tricolored cockade in his hat, and declared himself united with the nation. Lafayette, who had fought so nobly for freedom in America, was appointed commander of the National Guard.

8. Many thousands of the French nobles, with the Count of Artois and the Prince of Condé at their head now left the country. For this reason they were called "Emigrants." They gathered at Turin, and afterwards at Coblenz, and tried every effort to induce foreign governments to make war on France, and to suppress the Revolution by the power of their armies.

The emigrants.

9. The consequences of the capture of the Bastille were that the authority of the government and the laws throughout France was at an end. All power was in the hands of the people. The peasants of the provinces no longer paid their dues to the clergy and the nobility, but they took a terrible revenge for the tyranny which they and their ancestors had suffered for centuries. Many of the nobles were murdered or driven away, and their chateaux were reduced to ashes.

Insurrection throughout France.

10. When informed of the proceedings in the provinces, the National Assembly declared that the aristocracy should show by their conduct that they were ready to ameliorate the condition of the masses of the French people, and, with this

Abolition of aristocratic privileges and titles.

view, renounce all their exclusive privileges and titles. In one sudden burst of enthusiasm, the nobles and the clergy consented to surrender all their privileges and titles. Each of the privileged classes seemed to vie with the other in showing their willingness to make the greatest sacrifices for the welfare of the people. In one excited session, in the evening of the 4th of August, 1789, the National Assembly abolished all tithes, labor dues, all exclusive privileges, and all titles and distinctions of rank in France; and declared the equality of all classes before the law and with respect to taxation. All remnants of the Feudal System of the Middle Ages were now swept away; religious freedom was established; the church was deprived of her possessions; and the whole political condition of France was changed.

11. The hesitation of the King in promulgating the resolutions of the Assembly as laws, produced suspicions among the French people of his sincerity. **Imprudent conduct of the King and Queen.** These suspicions gained ground when the Flemish regiment was summoned to Versailles, and the king, the queen, and the dauphin were imprudent enough to appear at a dinner given by the soldiers of the body-guard to the officers of the regiment, when several royalist toasts were drunk, and many of the officers, mostly young nobles, under the influence of wine, made imprudent speeches against the privileges and liberties which had just been acquired by the people. An exaggerated account of these proceedings was spread through Paris, and the people feared that an attempt would be made to restore the former despotism.

12. In the mean time, the popular leaders were instigating the populace of Paris to demand that the king and the National Assembly should remove from **The King brought to Paris by a mob.** Versailles to the capital; and, on the 5th of October (1789), a multitude of the lowest refuse of the people, mostly women, armed with pikes,

clubs, and forks, left Paris and proceeded to Versailles. The mob demanded that the king and the Assembly should return to Paris, and cried for a relief from the scarcity of bread. During the night the mob stormed the palace, and massacred many of the king's guard who defended it; and had it not been for the timely arrival of Lafayette with the National Guard, the whole royal family would have been sacrificed to the fury of the mob. On the following day, the king and his family were obliged to accompany the mob to Paris, and to take up their abode in the Tuileries, which henceforth remained their palace and prison. Soon afterwards, the National Assembly transferred its sittings from Versailles to the capital.

13. The lower classes in France gradually acquired more power, and were kept in a constant state of excitement against the royal family and the aristocrats, by inflammatory speeches from unprincipled demagogues. The infamous Marat, in his licentious journal, "The Friend of the People," encouraged the people to acts of violence. The revolution was also aided by the democratic clubs, which increased every day in extent and influence. Of these, the Jacobin club, which had branches in every town in France, was the most celebrated and the most powerful. The members of this club were satisfied with nothing less than a republic, with liberty and equality for all classes.

14. On the 14th of July, 1790, the anniversary of the capture of the Bastille, a grand "Ceremony of Federation" was held in the Champ de Mars. This was a very imposing spectacle. Lafayette, in the name of the National Guard, the president of the National Assembly, and the king, made solemn vows to support the coming constitution. The utmost enthusiasm and good feeling was manifested on this occasion by all classes and all parties.

15. Necker had already retired to Switz rland, and

Count Mirabeau, who had at first been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the revolution, now joined the cause of the king, believing a constitutional monarchy, and not a republic, to be the best form of Government for France. He now exerted himself to his utmost to prevent any further encroachments on the authority of the king; but, unfortunately for Louis XVI., Mirabeau died in April, 1791, and the timid and irresolute king was no longer able to resist the increasing influence of the Jacobins. A short time before his death, Mirabeau said: "Before long, neither the king nor the National Assembly will rule, but a vile faction will overspread the land with its horrors."

Death of
Count Mira-
beau.

16. The refusal of the king to declare the emigrants traitors led to a prevalent belief among the French people that he was not a true supporter of the constitution then framing. This belief excited the fears of the king, and he resolved upon leaving the country. Leaving behind him a letter, in which he protested against all the measures which had been forced from him since October, 1789, he fled with his family from Paris in a large carriage, in June, 1791; but did not succeed in escaping from the kingdom. Imprudently putting his head out of the window of the carriage, Louis was recognized by Drouet, the postmaster of St. Meneshould, who immediately rode off to Varennes, to give the alarm. When the royal family arrived at Varennes the road was barricaded, and the carriage was soon surrounded by a tumultuous mob. At this moment, a party of soldiers rode up to the carriage, and asked Louis if they should force a passage for him through the crowd. The king asked if it would cost many lives, and being told that it probably would, forbade the attempt, and surrendered himself a prisoner. The royal family were conducted to Paris by an insolent mob, and again compelled to resume their residence in the palace of the Tuileries.

Flight of the
Royal Fam-
ily to Varen-
nes.

17. The National Assembly, in obedience to the command of the French people, temporarily suspended the royal authority, until the king should swear to the new constitution, which was now almost completed. On the 14th of September, 1789, Louis XVI. took an oath to defend the constitution against internal and external enemies, and to enforce its provisions to the best of his ability. After the adoption of the constitution, the National Assembly passed an ordinance declaring that none of its members should be elected to the next assembly, and then declared itself dissolved.

CHAPTER CV.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(*Continued.*)

PERIOD OF THE FRENCH LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY—1791-1792.

1. The elections for representatives in the new assembly, called "The Legislative Assembly," had resulted in the complete success of the republicans. The **Jacobins and Girondists.** royalists had exercised no influence in the elections whatever. The assembly was thoroughly democratic. The republicans in the assembly were, however, divided into two great parties. The party of the most radical democratic views was known as "The Jacobin" or "Mountain" party. Its members belonged to the Jacobin club. It was called the Mountain party, because its members in the Assembly occupied seats above the others. This party was headed by such blood-thirsty revolutionists as Robespierre, Marat, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, St. Just, Couthon, Duke Philip of Orleans, and others. The more moderate party were called "Girondists," because their chief leaders were from the department of the Gironde. The principal leaders of the Girondist party were Brissot, Roland, Barbaroux, Condorcet, Vergniaud, Dumourier, and others. This party was opposed to un-

necessary bloodshed, and in favor of a federal republic, like the United States.

2. The first measures of the French Legislative Assembly were directed against the priests who refused to take the revolutionary oath, and against the emigrants, who had gathered at Coblenz, and were making every effort to stir up foreign powers to make war on France, for the purpose of effecting the restoration of the former despotism. The Assembly took measures for the arrest of the unsworn priests, and declared the emigrants to be traitors and conspirators, and endeavored to effect the confiscation of their estates. These measures were vetoed by the king, and their execution was thus prevented. This excited the indignation of the French people, who believed that the royal family were plotting with the emigrants, and with the Emperor of Austria, the brother of the queen, for the overthrow of the new system, and for the reëstablishment of the old state of things in France.

3. It was now evident that a foreign war must soon break out. The Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia, who were at this time making extensive preparations for war, demanded that the French should reform their government upon the plan proposed by their king in June, 1789. The French people were exasperated at this dictation from foreign monarchs, and resolved never to submit to such insolence. The King of France yielded very reluctantly his assent to a declaration of war against Austria and Prussia by the Assembly, on the 20th of April, 1792.

4. To secure the Legislative Assembly against any attack, it was determined to call 20,000 of the federates, from the Northern provinces of France, to Paris, with the professed object of celebrating the capture of the Bastille, and to entrust the

Delays of the French Legislative Assembly.

War declared against Austria and Prussia.

Insurrection of June.

defense of Paris to them. But Louis XVI. refused his approval of this measure, whereupon the Girondist ministers, with Roland at their head, resigned their offices, and Madame Roland severely censured the king in a letter. These proceedings excited the frenzy of the French people, and enabled the revolutionists to bring about an insurrection. On the 20th of June, the anniversary of the Tennis Court, a furious mob, armed with pikes, and headed by the brewer Santerre and the butcher Legendre, entered the Tuileries, for the purpose of compelling the king to approve of the decrees against the unsworn priests and for calling out the National Guard. For several hours, the king bore the insults of the mob, who even went so far as to take off his diadem, and put the red cap of the Jacobins on his head, until the appearance of the National Guard under Petion freed him from danger.

5. Near the close of July, 1792, a combined Austrian and Prussian army, of 140,000 men, under the command of Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, the celebrated commander of the English and Hanoverian forces in the Seven Years' War, passed the Eastern frontier of France, and marched into Lorraine. Before advancing into France, the Duke of Brunswick, at the proposal of one of the emigrants, had issued a proclamation, which only tended to inflame the mad fury of the revolutionists in Paris. He threatened military execution against all who supported the revolution, and demanded the restoration of the old despotism in France, under the penalty of giving up Paris to plunder, and punishing as rebels all who resisted. The insolent tone of this proclamation excited, in the French people, the fiercest rage against the emigrants and their foreign allies.

6. In consequence of the proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick, the French Legislative Assembly declared the country in great danger; and such Jacobin leaders

**Austrian
and Prussian
invasion of
France.**

as Robespierre, Marat, Danton, and Camille ^{The 10th of August.} Desmoulins harangued the Parisian populace, and inflamed their rage. These demagogues, called to Paris from Marseilles, Brest, and other French maritime towns, the very dregs of society, and resolved upon a general insurrection in the capital. After midnight, on the 10th of August (1792), a frantic mob, led by Danton, appeared before the Tuileries, which was defended by 900 Swiss guards and the Parisian National Guard. The mob pointed their cannon toward the palace, and the National Guard, unwilling to fire upon the multitude, dispersed. The mob, gradually becoming bolder, finally demanded the dethronement of the king. Hereupon the king and his family fled to the hall of the Assembly, where they remained for thirty-six hours. No sooner had the king left the Tuileries, than the mob pressed forward and endeavored to force an entrance into the palace, whereupon the Swiss guards fired upon the multitude, who were driven back with a loss of 200 men. The indignant Assembly, hearing the fire of musketry, required the king to order his guards to cease firing upon the people. No sooner was the order carried into execution, than the infuriated mob stormed the palace, massacred, without mercy, all whom they found in it, and destroyed the furniture. About 5,000 persons, 700 of whom were Swiss guards, fell victims to the rage of the mob.

7. The bloody event of the 10th of August was the death-blow to the monarchy in France. In the meantime, the Legislative Assembly, at the proposal of Vergniaud, the president of that body, ^{Fall of the Monarchy in France.} suspended the royal authority, and issued a call for the assembling of a National Convention on the 22d of September, 1792. Soon afterward, the king and his family were imprisoned in the Temple, a gloomy old building, which had once belonged to the Knights-Templars. After the king had been deprived of his authority,

the Assembly appointed a new ministry with the Girondist Roland at its head. The frightful Danton held the office of Minister of Justice. The ministry and the Common Council of Paris, which appointed pikemen to the police of the capital, managed everything their own way.

8. Lafayette who had hastened to Paris after the insurrection of June, for the purpose of saving the king, if

**Flight and
Imprison-
ment of La-
fayette.**

possible, was now ordered to appear before the Assembly, to answer for his conduct. Rightly believing that the Jacobins were resolved upon his destruction, Lafayette fled into the Austrian Netherlands, with the intention of escaping to America; but he was seized by the Austrians, who kept him prisoner for five years, in the dungeons of Magdeburg and Olmutz. Talleyrand fled to England, and thence to America, where he remained until the sanguinary period of the Revolution was over, when he returned to his native country.

9. By the advice of Danton, a court was instituted for the trial of all such persons as were suspected of being hostile to the Revolution; and it was resolved

**Massacre of
the Prisons.**

to crush all opposition from within and from without, by striking terror into the Royalists at home. The prisons were speedily filled with aristocrats and suspected persons. When intelligence reached Paris of the capture of Verdun by the Prussians, the Parisian populace were aroused to the greatest fury; and at three o'clock in the morning of the 2d of September (1792), a band of 300 hired assassins broke open the prisons in Paris, and commenced a frightful massacre of the unfortunate persons just arrested. During the massacres, the assassins established courts for the trial of their victims, and in a few minutes the fate of each was decided. The massacres continued until the 7th of September. During these six bloody days in Paris, more than 5,000 persons perished in the different prisons. Among the murdered was the

Princess de Lamballe, the friend of the queen, Marie Antoinette. A band of pikemen held the head of the murdered princess upon a pole before the window of the queen, who fell into frightful convulsions at the horrid spectacle. The monarchy in France was now completely overthrown, and the French Legislative Assembly ended its sittings on the 20th of September, 1792.

CHAPTER CVI.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC UNDER THE NATIONAL CONVENTION—(1792-1795.)

1. THE French Legislative Assembly was succeeded by a National Convention, which assembled at Paris on the 22d of September, 1792. On the very first day of its meeting, the Convention decreed that royalty was abolished in France, and a Republic was proclaimed. The Convention also enacted that time, instead of being reckoned from the birth of the Saviour, should thereafter be reckoned from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic.

First measures of the French National Convention.

2. On the 20th of September, 1792, the Prussian army, which had advanced into Champagne, was defeated by the French, under Dumourier and Kellerman, in the battle of Valmy. After this battle, the Prussians agreed to evacuate the French territories, and retreated to the Rhine. The French army under Custine then advanced into the Prussian territories, and captured the strong fortress of Mayence, and other places along the Rhine. The Austrians, who had invaded France from the Austrian Netherlands, were also obliged to retreat, and were pursued by the French army under Dumourier, across the frontier, into the Austrian Netherlands. On the 6th of November, 1792, Dumourier won

Retreat of the Austrians and the Prussians

a decisive victory over the Austrians, in the battle of Jemappes, which gave the French possession of the Austrian Netherlands.

3. One great object of the Jacobins was to take away the life of the king, or, as he was now called, "Louis Capet." They accused him of treason and

**Trial and
execution of
Louis XVI.**

conspiracy against the French Republic. On the 26th of December, 1793, Louis XVI. was brought to the bar of the National Convention as a criminal. The Girondists vainly endeavored to have the question of the king's guilt referred to the French people. The Jacobins prevented it, and caused a resolution to be passed declaring that a bare majority, and not a two-thirds vote, should be necessary for the condemnation of the king. After a trial of twenty days, during which the king's advocates, Deseze, Tronchet, and the venerable Maesherbes, displayed the greatest zeal and ability, the unfortunate monarch was declared guilty, and condemned to death by a majority of five votes, out of seven hundred and twenty-one. Among those who voted for the death of the king was his own cousin, Philip Egalité, Duke of Orleans. On the 21st of January, 1793, the king was taken to the place of execution, in the Square of the Revolution. He ascended the scaffold with a firm step. Looking around at the vast multitude, he exclaimed, "Frenchmen, I die innocent! I forgive my enemies." He was prevented from saying more by the noise of the drums which the brewer Santerre ordered to be beaten for the purpose of drowning his voice. The abbé Edgeworth pronounced aloud, "Son of St. Louis, asce to heaven." The executioners then seized hold of the king and tied his hands. Down came the axe of the guillotine, and the head that had worn a crown was severed from the body. A few of the multitude cried, "Vive la Nation!" "Vive la Republique!" but the greater part of them wept at the sad spectacle. The

body, without being laid in a coffin, was thrown into a plain grave, and quicklime was spread over it to hasten the decomposition. Thus perished one of the most virtuous and pious monarchs that ever sat on a throne,—a monarch who feared God and dearly loved his people. The memory of his infamous murderers will ever be held in detestation.

4. The execution of Louis XVI., and a proclamation by the French National Convention, offering the aid of France to all nations that would overthrow their monarchical governments, and establish republican forms in their stead, led to a coalition of almost all the crowned heads of Europe against the French Republic. The convention, however, did not wait to be attacked, but, resolving to anticipate the designs of the enemies of the Republic by taking the first step, declared war against the Kings of England and Spain, and the Stadtholder of Holland. Portugal and the Italian and German states joined the coalition against the French Republic. England, under the direction of her illustrious Prime-Minister, the younger William Pitt, furnished her continental allies with large subsidies, and prosecuted the war with vigor.

War declared
against Eng-
land, Spain,
and Holland.

5. The Austrians again appeared in force in the Austrian Netherlands; and on the 18th of March, 1793, the Austrian army, under the Prince of Coburg, defeated the French army under Dumourier, in the battle of Neerwinden. Dumourier ascribed the cause of this defeat to the Jacobins, whom he accused of having corrupted the army. Disgusted with the condition of affairs, Dumourier determined to attempt the re-establishment of monarchy in France. When the National Convention heard of this, that body determined upon the destruction of the general; but Dumourier seized the commissioners of the Convention, who had been sent to bring him to Paris, and sent them, as prison-

Battle of
Neerwinden—
Defection of
Dumourier.

ers, to the Austrians; and then went over to the enemy with a part of his army.

6. For the purpose of putting a stop to the violence of the mob in Paris, and destroying the domination of the capital, the Girondists endeavored to erect France into a federal republic. The Jacobins, seeing that this scheme, carried into effect, would weaken their power, violently opposed the project, and determined to prevent it by the destruction of the Girondists' leaders. The mob were excited to acts of violence against the Girondists; and finally, the great insurrection of the 31st of May and the 1st of June broke out, which had been brought about by Hebert and the leading Jacobin leaders of the National Convention, Marat, Danton, and Robespierre, and which deprived the Convention of its freedom. Headed by the infamous Henriot, the mob surrounded the Tuileries, where the Convention was sitting, and demanded, with menaces, the exclusion of the Girondists, and the abolition of the Commission of Twelve, the appointment of which the Girondists had obtained for the detection and punishment of those who had excited the riots. The Girondists made vain efforts to prevent the Convention from complying with the demands of the raging mob. When the majority of the Convention, seeing themselves deprived of the freedom of their deliberations, attempted to retire from the hall, they were forced back by the mob, and compelled to exclude the Girondists' deputies. Thirty-four of the Girondists were seized and imprisoned; twenty of them escaped to Normandy and Brittany, where they aroused their supporters to insurrection against the Convention; and the others were afterwards guillotined. Shortly afterwards, the bloodthirsty Marat was assassinated by the heroine, Charlotte Corday. Petion, Roland, and other Girondists committed suicide; Madame Roland was brought to the guillotine; and seventy-three partisans of the Girondists were expelled.

from the Convention, which was then entirely controlled by the sanguinary Jacobins, with Robespierre and Danton at their head, and nothing was for a time able to withstand their violence.

7. France now felt the terrible consequences of the victory of the Jacobins. The Committee of Public Safety in Paris, a formidable Revolutionary Tribunal, under the control of such bloodhounds as *The Reign of Terror.* Robespierre, Couthon, St. Just, Collot d'Herbois, Barrere, and others, filled the country with blood and terror. The law against the suspected was rigorously executed. In consequence of this, and other laws, the prisons were filled with those who were obnoxious to the populace and the Convention, and large parties were daily sent to the guillotine. Wealthy and refined persons were in constant danger of falling victims to the sanguinary fury and madness of the day. The populace of the capital were formed into democratic clubs, which had the power of disposing of the lives of all who were opposed to the Revolution. Agriculture was neglected, public credit was destroyed, and famine was added to the horrors from which the unhappy country was suffering. Among the distinguished persons who died on the guillotine were Bailly, Barnave, the queen Marie Antoinette, the infamous Duke of Orleans, and Generals Houchard, Biron, Custine, and Beauharnais. The tombs of the French kings were destroyed, in order that the people might forget every vestige of royalty. The churches were plundered, the Sabbath was abandoned, and finally, on the 10th of November, 1793, the Convention decreed the abolition of the Christian religion in France, and substituted the worship of "Reason" in its stead. The calendar, and the names of the months, had already been changed, and the year made to commence on the 22d of September, the birth-day of the French Republic. The rule of the populace of Paris, and the bloody monsters of the Convention, is known as "The Reign of



Terror." During its continuance more than one million of Frenchmen perished.

8. While the most shocking excesses were perpetrated by the French Republicans, and while the armies of all the other European nations were on the French frontiers, France was distracted by a bloody civil war. The seat of this war was the beautiful district of La Vendée, in the west of France. The inhabitants of La Vendée, who had always been firmly attached to their king and their landlords, had opposed the Revolution from the beginning. Enraged at the murder of their king and their unsworn priests, the peasants of La Vendée flew to arms against the National Convention, and under such brave leaders as Charette, Stofflet, Cathelineau, Laroche jaquelein, and others, they gained several brilliant victories, and drove the Republican armies out of their territory. The Convention again sent 200,000 troops, under such bloodthirsty commanders as Ronsin, Rossignol, and Westermann, against the rebellious Vendéans. The Republican troops, to their eternal shame, ravaged the fertile district of La Vendée with fire and sword. The Vendéans fought with the most determined valor to the last, and only submitted when they were perfectly exhausted, and after more than 200,000 of their number had perished in the insurrection.

9. The troops of the National Convention were also engaged in suppressing other frightful insurrections against the Reign of Terror. The inhabitants of Brittany and Normandy had arisen in support of the unfortunate Girondist leaders, but were soon subdued by the Republicans led by Freron, who filled that beautiful region with slaughter and desolation.

10. When the wealthy people of Lyons, indignant at the conduct of the Jacobin Chabot, who endeavored to excite the people of that city to acts of violence, caused that demagogue to be executed, the enraged Convention surrounded Lyons

with a powerful army. The inhabitants of the city rose in insurrection, and obstinately defended their city to the last extremity. After a vigorous siege of four months, Lyons surrendered to the Republican troops, who destroyed a great part of the city, and put to death and exiled thousands of the rebellious inhabitants. A formidable insurrection which had broken out in Marseilles was also suppressed, and many of the inhabitants of that city fled to Toulon, which had also revolted. The inhabitants of Toulon surrendered their city to an English squadron which they had called upon for assistance. The city was soon besieged by the Republican army, whose artillery was directed by the young Corsican, Napoleon Bonaparte, who now for the first time exhibited his great military talents. After a spirited resistance, the English set fire to their ships, leaving the unfortunate inhabitants to the mercy of their Republican enemies, who put many of them to death.

11. While the French National Convention was engaged in suppressing numerous insurrections against its authority, during the year 1793, the armies ^{Success of the} of almost all the nations of Europe were in ^{French arms} the field against the French Republic. ^{in the cam-} The ^{paign of 1793.} English, Dutch, Hanoverians, Hessians, Prussians, and Austrians, were on the northern and eastern frontiers of France. The Sardinians were on the south-east, and the Spaniards had passed the Pyrenees on the south-west. In the beginning of the year, the allies gained some successes. The English, under the Duke of York, captured Valenciennes, but were afterwards compelled by the French, under General Houchard, to raise the siege of Dunkirk. The Convention caused its generals who were so unfortunate as to be defeated, to suffer death in consequence. Thus General Custine, who was compelled to retreat from the Rhine by the Austrians and the Prussians, and General Beauharnais, who failed to prevent the recapture of May-

ence by the Prussians, were guillotined. Houchard met with the same fate, for retreating before the superior force of the enemy. Before the end of the year, the French arms were everywhere triumphant. The invasion on all sides was defeated, and the numerous insurrections against the Convention were suppressed. The army of the French Republic amounted to more than a million of men, and was inspired with the greatest enthusiasm.

12. The atrocities which disgraced the French Republic at length excited the disgust of Danton and Camille

**Fall of the
Dantonists.**

Desmoulins, who endeavored to arrest the Reign of Terror, and to stop the unnecessary shedding of blood. Robespierre and his partisans in the National Convention accordingly determined upon the destruction of the whole party of Danton, whom they accused of corruption. On the 11th of March, 1794, eleven of the ultra-revolutionists, among whom were Hebert, Chaumette, Clootz, Momoro, and Ronsin, were led to the guillotine. Danton and Camille Desmoulins, and their partisans in the Convention, were next brought before the Committee of Public Safety. Supported by a frantic mob, Danton and Desmoulins loudly demanded that their accusers should appear before them. For three days, the violent and tumultuous conduct of the mob, and the vehemence of Danton before the Revolutionary Tribunal, prevented the condemnation of the accused. At length, the Convention gave the Tribunal the power of condemning, without any further hearing, Danton, Desmoulins, and their partisans, who were trying to overthrow the Revolutionary power by means of an insurrection. Danton, Desmoulins, and their partisans were then brought to the guillotine and beheaded, in the presence of a vast multitude. On being led to death, Danton exclaimed, "Robespierre follows me!"

13. After the fall of the Dantonists, the Committee of Public Safety, entirely controlled by Robespierre and his

two chief confederates, St. Just and Couthon, ruled with almost unrestrained power, and the revolutionary excesses everywhere increased. In Paris, the aged marshal De Noailles, the venerable Malesherbes and his family, and the Madame Elizabeth, sister to Louis XVI., were guillotined. At length, several of the Jacobins, headed by Tallien, Legendre, Freron, Fouché, Barrère, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud-Varennes, and others, whom Robespierre had resolved to send to the guillotine, determined to destroy that vile monster, and bring the Reign of Terror to a close. On the 9th of Thermidor (27th of July), when Robespierre entered the hall of the Convention, with the purpose of procuring the condemnation of Tallien and his partisans, a stormy scene ensued. Robespierre was not allowed to speak. His words were drowned in the cries of "Down with the tyrant!" and the noise of the president's bell. The enraged monster, after vainly attempting to make himself heard, cried out, "President of assassins, will you not allow me to speak!" Tallien, denouncing him as a usurper and a tyrant, threatened to thrust a poniard into his heart. Robespierre ran from one seat to another, raving and foaming like a maniac. After a stormy time, Robespierre and his partisans, St. Just, Couthon, and Henriot, were denounced and sent as prisoners to the Luxembourg palace. They were released on the way by a furious mob, and Henriot caused the National Guard to surround the Convention, while Robespierre, St. Just, and Couthon sought refuge in the Hotel de Ville. When the Convention outlawed Henriot, his troops dispersed, and an armed force under Barras rallied to the support of the Convention. Henriot fled to the Hotel de Ville, where the accused were again secured. Robespierre attempted to commit suicide by shooting himself, but only succeeded in breaking his lower jaw, and was taken, horribly disfigured, before the Revolutionary Tribunal, amid the

Fall of
Robespierre.

curse of the populace; and on the following day, 10th Thermidor, he was guillotined, amid the shouts and exultation of the people. St. Just, Couthon, and Henriot shared his fate. On the two following days, seventy-two Jacobins were guillotined, and with their death ended the Reign of Terror.

14. The campaign of 1794, like that of 1793, was glorious for the French. On the 26th of June, the French army under Jourdain, in the Austrian Netherlands, gained the battle of Fleurus over the Austrians. The result of this battle was that the French obtained possession of the Austrian Netherlands, from which their enemies were compelled to retire.

15. The assemblies of the people were limited by degrees, and the populace were deprived of their weapons.

At the call of Freron, who, now became an aristocrat, many of the young men, called from their clothing "the gilded youth," attacked the Jacobins in the streets, and at their clubs. The cloister of the Jacobins was at length taken, and its doors were closed, after a desperate struggle. The National Convention now recalled the expelled members, and such of the Girondists as still remained, rescinded the decrees against the nobles and the priests, restored public worship, and sentenced the remaining Terrorists in the Convention, Lebon, Carrier, Fouquier Tinville, and others, to be executed. When four members of the Committee of Public Safety, Barrere, Vadier, Collot d'Herbois, and Billaud-Varennes, were condemned, the Jacobins resolved upon a struggle for their existence, and drove the people of Paris to an insurrection against the Convention. The mob surrounded the Convention, and made menacing demands for the release of the accused, and a return to the Reign of Terror. The mob was dispersed by General Pichegru, who had hastened to the aid of the distressed Convention.

16. The formidable insurrection of the 1st Prairial (May 20th), when the mob, numbering 30,000 persons, held the Convention surrounded for about eighteen hours, was also suppressed, with the aid of some battalions of the Sections, and some of the leaders of the tumult, and six Jacobins, were condemned to death; and the power of the Jacobins and the Parisian populace terminated. Many of the Jacobins destroyed themselves; others were guillotined, imprisoned, or banished.

Insurrection
of the 1st
Prairial.

17. A new constitution was now formed, by which the executive power of the French Republic was vested in a Directory of five persons. The legislative power was divided between a Council of Five Hundred, which had the power of originating laws, and a Council of Ancients, which had the power of approving or rejecting these laws. The members of the Councils were appointed by delegates, elected for that purpose, by the French people. The members of the Directory were to be named by the Council of Five Hundred, and confirmed by the Council of Ancients.

New Consti-
tution.

18. The Republicans of the National Convention, fearing that the reaction in favor of monarchical principles would deprive them of political power, decreed that two-thirds of the members of the Legislative Councils should be chosen from the members of the Convention. The Royalists, after vainly objecting to the decree of the Convention, which limited the freedom of election, brought about "The Insurrection of the Sections," on the 11th Vendemiaire, (3d. of October.) The distressed Convention assembled for its defence a force of 5,000 troops, under General Barras, who intrusted the arrangements for the suppression of the insurrection to his second in command, the young Corsican, Napoleon Bonaparte, who had distinguished himself as an artillery commander at the siege of Toulon. Bonaparte

Insurrection
of the
sections.

set about energetically in making preparations for the overthrow of the revolt. The armed insurgents of the Sections, 40,000 in number, surrounded the Convention and attacked Bonaparte, who replied by a heavy discharge of cannon loaded with grape-shot. The insurgents were subdued in a few hours, and quiet was again restored in Paris. The suppression of the insurrection took place on the 13th Vendemiaire; and resulted in giving the supremacy to the Republicans of the Convention. Bonaparte, who had just married Josephine, the widow of General Beauharnais, was rewarded, for his success against the insurgents, with the command of the French army in Italy. The Convention now closed its sessions, and the new government was organized.

19. Early in the year 1795, a French army under General Pichegru subdued Holland, and compelled the hereditary Stadtholder of that republic to flee to England. The conquered country was then erected into "The Batavian Republic," in alliance with France. On the 5th of April, 1795, Prussia concluded the Peace of Basle with the French Republic. The example of Prussia was followed by Spain and the German States; and England and Austria were the only considerable powers that continued the war against revolutionary France.

CHAPTER CVII.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC UNDER THE DIRECTORY.—(1795-1799.)

1. Two French armies, commanded respectively by Moreau and Jourdain, advanced into Germany, in 1796. The Austrians, under the command of the Archduke Charles, an able general, defeated Jourdain at Wurzburg, on the 3d of September; and

French In-
vasion of
Germany.

Moreau only saved his army from total ruin by a masterly retreat, through the Black Forest, and across the Rhine.

2. While Jourdain and Moreau were so unfortunate in Germany, the French army in Italy, under Bonaparte, was winning imperishable renown. In April, 1796, Napoleon began his victorious career in Italy. ^{Bonaparte in Italy.} by defeating the Austrians under Beaulieu, in the battles of Montenotte and Millesimo. The King of Sardinia, now greatly alarmed, agreed to a humiliating peace with the French, who obtained the cession of Savoy and Nice, and the right to march armies, at any time, through the Sardinian territories.

3. In May, Bonaparte crossed the Po with his army, and advanced to attack the Austrians. The bridge of Lodi, across the river Adda, was strongly ^{Terrible Passage of the Bridge of Lodi.} guarded by an Austrian force, which opened a tremendous discharge of grape-shot upon the French troops when they attempted to cross. The advance was checked for a moment, when the French grenadiers rushed forward with irresistible impetuosity, drove back the Austrians, and thus forced a passage over the bridge. This victory, known as the battle of Lodi, occurred on the 10th of May, 1796, and it gave the French possession of Milan and the Lombard towns.

4. Beaulieu was superseded in the command of the Austrian army in Italy by Wurmser, who immediately threw himself into Mantua. An army of 50,000 Hungarians under Alvinzi was sent to ^{Passage over the bridge of Arcola.} reinforce Wurmser, and the French were in danger of being overwhelmed by the superior numerical strength of the Austrians. In November, Bonaparte marched to attack Alvinzi at the village of Arcola. The narrow causeways leading to the village were closely guarded by the Austrians. The French column that attempted to cross the bridge of Arcola was driven back with terrific slaughter, whereupon Bonaparte, seizing a

standard, rushed on the bridge and urged on his grenadiers, but they were repulsed; and Napoleon was in extreme danger of being made a prisoner, when his grenadiers suddenly rushed forward with the cry of "Save the General!" and, with resistless fury, forced a passage over the bridge. This first battle of Arcola occurred on the 15th of November, 1796. The following day, another battle was fought at Arcola, and on the 17th, Alvinzi was again defeated, and obliged to retreat to Montebello.

5. The Austrian army, under Alvinzi, in Italy, was defeated by Bonaparte, in the battle of Rivoli, on the 14th of January, 1797. In the following month, Alvinzi was again defeated, at La Favorita. These events compelled Wurmser to surrender Mantua to Bonaparte, on the 19th of February, 1797, after a siege of four months. Pope Pius VI., greatly frightened, concluded with the French the peace of Tolentino, in which he made great sacrifices.

The war in Italy.

6. The Archduke Charles was finally placed in command of the Austrian army in Italy, but he was also defeated, and finally compelled to retreat toward Vienna, and was pursued into the hereditary Austrian states by Bonaparte. The Emperor of Austria became alarmed for the safety of his capital, and hastily concluded with the victorious French general the preliminary Peace of Leoben, on the 18th of April, 1797.

Bonaparte's invasion of Austria.

7. After the treaty of Leoben, Bonaparte made the Venetians feel the effects of his vengeance, for turning their arms against the French. The Venetian senate, after humbly imploring the clemency of the conquering general, quietly submitted when the French entered Venice; and, after having lasted for more than a thousand years, the Venetian Republic ceased to exist as an independent power.

Fall of the Venetian Republic.

8. On the 17th of October, 1797, the definitive peace

of Campo Formio was concluded between France and Austria. By this peace, a great part of Northern Italy was formed into "The Cisalpine Republic," and virtually became a dependency of France. Venice and Dalmatia were bestowed on the House of Austria, in exchange for the Austrian Netherlands, which were ceded to France. A short time afterwards, Genoa was effected into "The Ligurian Republic," and was virtually under the control of France.

**Definitive
Peace of
Campo
Formio.**

9. France was at this time distracted by the contests of parties. So great a reaction had taken place among the French people that the advocates of monarchy secured the election of their candidates to the Legislative Councils by large majorities, in May, 1797. The councils immediately denounced the policy of the Directory, and manifested a disposition to overthrow the republican constitution and re-establish monarchy. The Republicans in the Directory became alarmed for the security of their power, and applied for assistance to Bonaparte, who accordingly sent 12,000 troops under Augereau to Paris. On the 18th Fructidor (4th of September,) Augereau surrounded the Tuileries with his troops, and gave orders for the arrest of the Royalist members of the councils; whereupon eleven members of the Council of Ancients, and forty-two of the Council of Five Hundred, among whom was Pichegru, and two of the Directors, Carnot and Berthelemy, were sentenced to banishment. The royalist elections were then annulled, the returned emigrants were banished, and many newspapers were suppressed. Thus the expressed will of the French people was set aside by military usurpation. This is known as "The Revolution of the Eighteenth Fructidor."

**The Eighteenth
Fructidor.**

10. During the suppression of a Republican riot in Rome by the papal troops, the French general Duphot was

**Establishment
of the Roman
and Parthe-
nopeian
Republics.**

killed. The French Government, seizing upon this as a pretext, sent a force under General Berthier to Rome. The Pope was deprived of his temporal power, and a Roman Republic was established, in February, 1798. Ferdinand, King of Naples, persuaded by his wife, Caroline, sent an army under the Austrian general Mack to Rome, and the French were expelled from that city; but a few days afterward, led by General Championnet, they returned, and, after driving the Neapolitan troops out of Rome, marched into Naples. The frightened Ferdinand and his court fled to Sicily; and, in January, 1799, Naples was converted into "The Parthenopeian Republic," after a three days' slaughter of the lazzaroni, who had resisted the French.

11. The French interfered in the dissensions in Switzerland, in 1798. The people of Vaud, who had taken up arms for the purpose of liberating themselves from the domination of the Bernese, called upon the French for assistance, whereupon General Brune, with French troops, marched into Berne. Canton after canton was forced to yield to the French; and Switzerland, under the name of "The Helvetic Republic," was virtually placed under the supremacy of France.

**Threatened
invasion of
England.**

12. In the beginning of 1798, the French Directory threatened an invasion of England, the only country then at war with France. An army of 150,000 men, under the name of "The army of England, under the command of Bonaparte, the youthful conqueror of Italy, was assembled along the French side of the English Channel.

**Bonaparte's
expedition to
Egypt.**

13. The invasion of England was not attempted, but an expedition was fitted out for the conquest of Egypt, a province of the Ottoman Empire, notwithstanding a state of peace existed between

France and Turkey. The command of this expedition was given to Bonaparte, who intended to strike at the British possessions in India, after effecting the conquest of Egypt. Bonaparte, with the expedition, consisting of 40,000 land troops and 10,000 seamen, sailed from Toulon on the 19th of May, 1798; and, after taking the island of Malta by treachery from the Knights of St. John, the French landed before Alexandria, on the 1st of July. That city was carried by storm and given up to plunder.

14. On the 6th of July Bonaparte left Alexandria, and with 80,000 of his troops he advanced toward Cairo, greatly annoyed on the way by the Mameluke horsemen. On the 21st (July, 1798), he ^{Battle of the Pyramids} arrived before the intrenched camp of 20,000 Mamelukes under Mourad Bey, near the famous Pyramids. Eight thousand Mameluke horsemen advanced to attack the French troops, when Bonaparte exclaimed, "Soldiers, from yonder Pyramids, forty centuries look down upon you!" and the conflict commenced. The French, who were formed into squares, easily repulsed the impetuous assaults of the Mamelukes, who rode up to the bayonets of their enemies, and threw their pistols at the heads of the French grenadiers. When the Mameluke cavalry were driven back, the French took by storm the camp of their enemy, with all their baggage and cannon; and the battle of the Pyramids ended in a complete victory for Bonaparte, who had lost less than 200 men in the engagement. Hundreds of the enemy perished in the Nile; Mourad Bey, and a small remnant of his Mamelukes, fled into Upper Egypt; Cairo surrendered; and the conquest of Lower Egypt was accomplished.

15. In the meantime, a powerful English fleet, under Admiral Nelson, had been cruising in the Mediterranean sea, in search of the French fleet. On the 1st of August (1798) Nelson discovered the ^{Battle of the Nile} French fleet, under Admiral Brueyes, an-

chored in the bay of Aboukir. At about sunset, Nelson attacked the French ships. A fierce battle ensued, which continued until dawn the next morning. The thunders of the explosion of the French ship *L'Orient*, of 120 guns, which occurred about midnight, shook every vessel in both fleets, and for a moment there was a pause in the deadly conflict. The French admiral perished with the explosion. The battle of the Nile, as this engagement is called, was one of the most terrific naval engagements on record, and it resulted in a complete victory for the English. Only a few of the French vessels escaped, the rest all being destroyed or taken by the English. By this disaster, Napoleon and his army were cut off from all resources from France. A formidable insurrection in Cairo against the French, on the 21st of October, was suppressed after 6,000 Mohammedans had lost their lives.

16. The French Republic by her victories over her enemies, had established six sister republics. These were the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Parthenopeian Republics,—all established with forms of government similar to that of France. The aggressive conduct of the French in Switzerland, Rome, and Naples, induced Austria and Russia to unite with England in a coalition against the French Republic. Turkey, exasperated at the unprincipled occupation of Egypt, also declared war against France.

17. The coalition commenced hostilities against the French simultaneously, in the spring of 1799, in Italy, Switzerland, Germany, and the Netherlands. In Germany, fortune was adverse to the French.

On the 25th of March, the Austrians, under the Archduke Charles, defeated the French army at Stockach. On the 28th of April, the French ambassadors, after leaving the congress of Rastadt, were attacked and murdered by Austrian hussars. The French Directory took advantage of this barbarous deed to excite the French

people to vengeance, and a new French army of 200,000 men was raised.

18. In Italy also, the French were unsuccessful. The Russians, under the veteran marshal Suwarrow, defeated Moreau at Cassano, and Macdonald at Trebia, ^{Success of the Austrians and Russians in} celebrated as the place of one of Hannibal's victories. Finally Suwarrow, by the defeat ^{Italy.}

and death of Joubert in the three days' bloody battle of Novi, effected the conquest of the Cisalpine Republic. The disasters to the French in Northern Italy were followed by the overthrow of the Parthenopeian and Roman Republics. After the French had evacuated Naples, Cardinal Ruffo, at the head of the enraged lazzaroni, took the city by storm; and King Ferdinand and his court returned from Sicily, and resumed their authority in Naples. The republicans of Naples suffered a frightful punishment. Hundreds were massacred by the lazzaroni, and many were imprisoned. The Roman Republic was also subverted, and Pöpe Pius VI. was restored to his former power.

19. After completing the conquest of Italy, Suwarrow crossed the Alps, in the midst of almost insurmountable difficulties, into Switzerland, ^{The Russians in Switzerland—Battle of Zurich.} for the purpose of expelling the French from that country; but the Austrians failing to properly support

their allies, the Russians were defeated by the French, under Massena, at Zurich, on the 26th of September, after a bloody battle of two days. Zurich was taken by the French; and Suwarrow, and the remnant of the defeated Russian army, retired across the icy Grisons, and returned to their own country, where the aged marshal soon after ward died.

20. The attempt of the English to drive the French from Holland, and restore to the Stadtholder his authority, resulted in a disastrous failure. The incompetent ^{Defeat of the English in Holland.} English general, the Duke of York, having been defeated by the French, under General



Brune, at Berghen, concluded with the French a disgraceful convention, by which he was allowed to retire with his army leaving the Russians alone to oppose the French. The selfish conduct of the English and the Austrians, so exasperated the Emperor Paul of Russia, that he withdrew from the coalition, made peace with France, and became the bitter enemy of Great Britain.

21. Although cut off from his resources by the loss of his fleet, Bonaparte still resolved to pursue his conquests in the East. Upper Egypt was conquered by **Bonaparte's Syrian expedition.** a French division under General Desaix, who marched beyond the ruins of Thebes. Leaving 16,000 men to hold that country in subjugation, Bonaparte with 14,000 men, in February, 1799, proceeded to Syria, where the Turks were assembling a large army to oppose him. On the 6th of March, Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, was taken by Napoleon, after a furious assault, and 4,000 of its defenders were put to death after they had surrendered. This cruel act is an ineradicable stain upon the character of the youthful conqueror of Italy and Egypt.

22. On the 16th of March, 1799, Bonaparte appeared before Acre, which was garrisoned by a strong Turkish force, under the Pacha of Syria, who was aided in the defence of the city by an English squadron, under Sir Sydney Smith. After a siege of two months, during which seventeen desperate attempts to take the town by storm were defeated, Bonaparte abandoned the siege, and left the town in the possession of its defenders.

23. In the meantime, while the siege of Acre was in progress, the Turks were assembling immense hosts for the purpose of overwhelming the French. **Battle of Mount Tabor.** While General Kleber, with a small French force, was on his march to attack the enemy's camp on the Jordan, he was met by 30,000 Turks at Mount Tabor. Kleber, who had formed his little band

into squares, successfully held out against the overwhelming numbers of the enemy for six hours, and when Bonaparte appeared with his troops for the relief of his subordinates, the Turks fled in dismay, and dispersed, leaving their baggage and stores in the hands of the victorious French. Another Turkish force was defeated and dispersed at Nazareth, by a French force under Junot.

24. Napoleon reached Egypt, on his return from Syria, on the 1st of June, 1799. On the 11th of July, a Turkish army of 18,000 men, landed at Aboukir bay, Napoleon's return to Egypt. whither it had been conveyed by an English squadron, commanded by Sir Sydney Smith.

Napoleon on hearing of this, left Cairo, and on the 25th of July, he attacked and completely destroyed the Turkish army, which had already established a strongly-fortified camp at Aboukir. The greater portion of the Turkish troops were killed, wounded, drowned in the bay of Aboukir, or made prisoners.

25. Shortly after his brilliant victory at Aboukir, Napoleon received intelligence, through some newspapers, of the disasters to the French arms in Italy, Napoleon's return to France. and he resolved upon immediately setting out on his return to France. Leaving his army in Egypt under the command of Kleber, he secretly embarked for France. After a long voyage, in which he was in constant danger of being captured by British cruisers, Bonaparte arrived at Frejus, on the southern coast of France, on the 9th of October; and on the 18th, he reached Paris, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

26. No sooner had Bonaparte arrived in Paris, than he entered into a scheme with Sieyes, one of the Directors, and others, for the overthrow of the Directory, The eighteenth Brumaire. which had fallen into contempt. He first secured the support of the officers and troops in Paris, and obtained from the Council of Ancients the command of the National Guard and all the troops in Paris.

and a decree for the transfer of the sittings of the two Legislative Councils to St. Cloud. The Directors and the Council of Ancients were easily induced to resign their authority. On the 18th Brumaire (9th of November), Napoleon entered the hall of the Council of Five Hundred, and endeavored to secure the consent of the members of that body to his plans, but finding himself threatened and reproached by the members, who, seeing the grenadiers at the doors with fixed bayonets, cried, "Outlaw him! Down with the Director!" he retired from the hall, where the greatest tumult was raging. Napoleon and his brother, Lucien Bonaparte, who was president of the Council of Five Hundred, harangued the troops; and Joachim Murat, by order of Napoleon, entered the hall with his grenadiers, and compelled the members to flee out of the doors and windows. Thus the constitution was overthrown, and military usurpation triumphant. This is known as "The Revolution of the 18th Brumaire." Napoleon Bonaparte now took the government of France into his own hands.

CHAPTER CVIII.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.—(*Continued.*)

GOVERNMENT AND WARS OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

1. WE have seen that, by the overthrow of the Directory, on the 18th Brumaire, Napoleon Bonaparte took the government of France into his own hands.

The Consular Constitution.

On the 13th of December, 1799, a new constitution was proclaimed for France, by which the executive power was vested in three consuls, who were to be elected for ten years. "The First Consul," as Napoleon was called, possessed all the powers of a monarch. The other two consuls, Lebrun and Cambaceres, were the advisers of the First Consul. Talleyrand was appointed Minister of the Interior, and Fouché Minister

of Police. There was a Senate, whose duty was to select persons for the Legislature. The legislative power was entrusted to a Tribunata of one hundred members, who were to discuss the proposals of the Government, and the Legislative Bodies, which had the right only of approving or rejecting these proposals.

2. Bonaparte, after securing the chief authority in France, proposed peace to England and Austria, the only nations then at war with France. Both powers refused to treat until the Bourbons should be restored to the throne of France, and the most energetic preparations were made on both sides for a vigorous prosecution of the war.

Peace propositions.

3. A French army of 130,000 men, under Moreau, advanced into Germany, gained several victories, and compelled the Austrians to a hasty retreat. Another French army in Italy, under Massena, was compelled to surrender to the Austrians at Genoa.

Events in Germany and Italy.

4. On hearing of the surrender of Massena, Bonaparte started for Italy, at the head of 50,000 troops. He crossed the Alps at the difficult pass of Great St. Bernard. Difficulties almost insurmountable presented themselves. Precipices, ravines, and eternal snows, seemed to forbid a passage; but the army followed a narrow path, known to no living creature but the chamois and the hunter. The artillery was taken apart, and the pieces were placed in the hollow trunks of trees, which were drawn across the mountains by the soldiers. The troops were encouraged by the music of the bands, and where the ascent was most difficult the drums beat a charge. The Austrians were completely surprised when Napoleon's army suddenly appeared on the Italian plains.

Bonaparte's passage over the great St. Bernard.

5. On the 9th of June, 1800, a part of the French army under General Lannes, defeated the Austrians at

**Battle of
Montebello
and Marengo.**

Montebello; and on the 14th June, 1800, Napoleon at the head of 20,000 men, encountered 30,000 Austrians, under General Melas, at the village of Marengo. The French were at first driven back, but the obstinate resistance of Desaix, who had just arrived from Egypt, and the charge of the brave Kellerman, changed the result, and the battle ended in the complete overthrow of the Austrian army. Among the killed on the side of the French was the heroic General Desaix. The result of the French victory was that hostilities were suspended.

6. In November, 1800, Marshal Macdonald, with 15,000 French troops, crossed the Alps into Italy, at the difficult pass of the Splugen, thus increasing the French forces in Italy to 100,000 men.

**Macdonald's
passage of the
Splugen.**

7. When the negotiations for peace between France and England failed, the armistice between France and Austria terminated, and an Austrian army of 80,000 men, under the Archduke John, which had advanced into Bavaria, was defeated by the French army under Moreau, in the celebrated battle of Hohenlinden, on the night of the 3d of December, 1800, and driven toward Vienna. On the 25th, an armistice was concluded.

**Battle of
Hohenlinden.**

8. Plots for the assassination of Bonaparte were undertaken, both by the Republicans and by the Royalists. On the 25th of December, 1800, while he was crossing a narrow street in Paris, a cask, filled with powder, called "The Infernal Machine," exploded, and killed several persons, but the First Consul escaped unhurt.

**Attempted as-
sassination of
Bonaparte.**

9. The battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden completely broke the power of Austria, so that nothing remained for the Emperor but to accept such terms as France chose to dictate; and on the 9th of February, 1801, a treaty of peace, signed at Luneville,

**Peace of
Luneville.**

put an end to the war between France and Austria; and England was the only country that remained at war with France.

10. Through the influence of Napoléon, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Prussia, had been induced, late in the year 1800, to enter into a league against the maritime power of England. The Emperor Paul of Russia, one of the most bitter enemies of England, was the head and soul of this league. Paul had already laid an embargo on British vessels in Russian ports, while the Danish Government had ordered its vessels to resist "the right of search" claimed by the English.

Maritime
league
against
England.

11. After unsuccessful attempts at negotiation with the hostile powers which formed the league, the English Government sent a powerful naval expedition, under Lord Nelson and Sir Hyde Parker, to the Baltic. On the 2d of April, 1801, the British fleet appeared before Copenhagen, when it was furiously attacked by the Danish fleet. A bloody naval battle of four hours ensued, resulting in the defeat of the Danes, with the loss of 6,000 men, while the English lost only 1,200. In speaking of this battle, Nelson said, "I have been in one hundred and one engagements, but the battle of Copenhagen was the most terrible of them all."

Battle of
Copenhagen.

12. Nelson was preparing to attack the Russian fleet, when he received intelligence that the Emperor Paul had been assassinated at St. Petersburg, on the night of the 24th of March, 1801, by a band of Russian nobles, who had entered into a conspiracy for the purpose. Paul's son, Alexander I., who was immediately proclaimed Emperor, declared himself the friend of Great Britain, and abandoned the hostile league. Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden, followed the example of Russia, and thus the league fell to pieces.

Dissolution
of the mari-
time league.

13. Bonaparte now threatened an invasion of England

from Boulogne. Large bodies of troops were moved to this point, with the ostensible object of being transported to the English coast. The British Government made energetic preparations to resist the threatened invasion. Lord Nelson was sent with a powerful fleet against Boulogne. Bonaparte, convinced of the hopelessness of success, abandoned the enterprise.

14. General Kleber, whom Napoleon had left in command of the French army in Egypt, was assassinated by a fanatical Mohammedan, and his army was defeated, on the 21st of March, 1801, by the English force under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who lost his life in the moment of victory. The French surrendered on condition of being allowed to return home, and their whole force was conveyed to France in English vessels.

15. As the French were now driven out of Egypt, and the island of Malta had been recaptured by a British squadron, nothing remained to contend for between England and France; and, to the great joy of both nations, a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens, on the 27th of March, 1802. By the terms of this treaty, England was required to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John, and the Cape of Good Hope to the Dutch.

16. All Europe now enjoyed a short interval of peace, and Napoleon directed his attention to the establishment of order and the security of his authority in France. On the 18th of September, 1801, he had made a treaty, called "The Concordat," with the Pope, for the reestablishment of religion in France. He established a Polytechnic School, for the education of young men in the sciences. He summoned the most eminent lawyers in France to arrange the Code Napoleon. The construction of roads, bridges, and canals,

was commenced, and the emigrants were invited to return to their native land. In 1802, Napoleon was elected First Consul of the French Republic for life. A new order of nobility, founded on individual merit, and known as "The Legion of Honor," was instituted.

17. The conduct of Napoleon toward the weaker powers of Europe was extremely arbitrary and unjust. The Batavian and Helvetic Republics were entirely under his control. He effected a political change in the Helvetic Republic, and when the Swiss people opposed his usurpation, he sent Ney with an army of 20,000 men against them, and all resistance was soon at an end. England vainly remonstrated against this outrage.

**Bonaparte's
conduct
toward
Holland and
Switzerland.**

18. The island of St. Domingo, or Hayti, the largest and most important of the French possessions in the West Indies, was in a state of rebellion. The negroes, headed by Toussaint L'Ouverture, had taken up arms against their white masters, massacred many of them, and established the independence of the island. Bonaparte sent his brother-in-law, Leclerc, with an army of 35,000 men, to restore the French authority in the island. Toussaint L'Ouverture was treacherously seized, and carried a prisoner to France, where he died. The insurrection was then quelled, but when the French attempted to reestablish slavery, the negroes again rebelled, killed nearly all the French troops, and established themselves as an independent nation, adopting a republican form of government. France acknowledged the independence of St. Domingo in 1825.

**Revolt of St.
Domingo.**

19. The Peace of Amiens proved to be nothing more than a mere suspension of arms. The arbitrary conduct of Bonaparte toward Holland, Switzerland, and Italy, aroused the jealousy of the English, who accordingly refused to give up Malta, Egypt, and the Cape of Good Hope, as stipu-

**Renewal of
the war
between
England and
France.**

lated by the treaty of Amiens. The violent denunciations of Bonaparte by the English press, and the insulting treatment of Lord Whitworth, the British ambassador at Paris, widened the breach between England and France. In May, 1803, the English cabinet issued letters of marque, and decreed an embargo on all French vessels in British ports. Napoleon retaliated by ordering all British subjects then in France, between the ages of sixteen and sixty years, to be seized and imprisoned.

20. A French force under Mortier soon overran and conquered Hanover, the hereditary possession of the King of Great Britain; and, in utter disregard of neutral rights, all Northern Germany was occupied by French troops. A French army was also sent against the kingdom of Naples.

Conquest of
Hanover.

21. Napoleon was again making immense preparations for an invasion of England. The French, Dutch, and Spanish Fleets were to assist in the project; and large bodies of land troops were again assembled at Boulogne, for the ostensible purpose of making a descent upon the English coast. After considerable boasting, the project entertained was abandoned.

Threatened
invasion of
England.

22. In the early part of 1804, a conspiracy against the authority of Bonaparte, in which Generals Moreau and Pichegru, and George Cadoudal, a Vendean chief, were implicated, was discovered. Moreau was allowed to retire into voluntary exile in America; Pichegru died a violent death in prison; and George Cadoudal was guillotined. Napoleon, suspecting that the young Duke d'Enghein, a kinsman of the late royal family of France, was engaged in a plot for his assassination, caused the young prince, who was then living in the neutral territory of Baden, to be arrested and brought to Vincennes. After a trial by a court-martial, in which all the forms of justice were disregarded, the

Conspiracies
against Bon-
aparte.

the duke was sentenced to death in the night, and immediately shot in the ditches of the castle-yard of Vincennes. This horrible crime is the greatest blot upon the character of Bonaparte.

23. The British Government, believing that Spain had secretly united with France, caused several of the Spanish treasure ships, while on their home voyage from South America, to be seized, in the fall of 1804, without a previous declaration of war. War between England and Spain.

The Spanish Government, upon hearing of this hasty and unjustifiable act, was so exasperated that it immediately declared war against England, and entered into a close alliance with France, (December, 1804.)

24. On the 18th of May, 1804, the servile French Senate created Napoleon "Emperor of the French;" and on the 2d of December of the same year, he was crowned in the church of Notre Dame, in Paris, by Pope Pius VII., who had been induced to come to the French capital for that purpose. Napoleon, "Emperor of the French."

25. On the 26th of May, 1805, Napoleon was crowned King of Italy at Milan. The iron crown of Charlemagne was brought forward for the occasion; and Napoleon, placing it on his head, uttered the words: "God has given it to me; beware of touching it." Eugene Beauharnais, Napoleon's step-son, was appointed viceroy of the Kingdom of Italy. Napoleon, King of Italy.

25. The alarm created by the occupations of Napoleon in Germany, Holland, Italy, and Switzerland, and the influence of English gold, induced Austria, Russia, and Sweden, to unite in a coalition with England against France. New coalition against France.

26. With the greatest promptitude, Napoleon assembled an army on the Rhine, marched eastward for the purpose of driving the Austrians out of Bavaria, which they had invaded in utter disregard of neutral rights. On the 20th of October Capitulation of Ulm.

(1805), he compelled General Mack and 35,000 Austrian troops, who composed the garrison of Ulm, to lay down their arms. Mack was afterwards court-martialled, and deprived of his command, by order of the Austrian Government.

27. On the day of Mack's disgraceful capitulation at Ulm (October 21, 1805), a bloody naval battle occurred off Cape Trafalgar, on the south-western coast of Spain, in which the combined French and Spanish fleets, under Villeneuve and Gravina, were annihilated by the English fleet, under Lord Nelson and Admiral Collingwood. Most of the French and Spanish vessels were captured by the English. The victory of the English was dearly purchased, as the heroic Lord Nelson, their greatest naval commander, was slain in the engagement.

**Battle of
Trafalgar.**

28. Proceeding in his victorious career, Napoleon defeated the Russians, under Kutusoff and Bagration, at Dirnstein, on the 11th of November, and on the 13th he entered Vienna. He then pursued the Austrian forces into the province of Moravia, and on the 2d of December he defeated the combined Austrian and Russian armies in the celebrated battle of Austerlitz. This was the most brilliant of all Napoleon's victories. The Austrian and Russian Emperors, who had witnessed the battle from a neighboring eminence, fled in consternation when they saw that their armies were beaten.

**Battles of
Dirnstein
and Auster-
litz.**

29. Nothing now remained for the Emperor of Austria but to accept such terms of peace as Napoleon chose to dictate; and on the 26th of December, 1805, the peace of Presburg was signed, by which the war between France and Austria was terminated. The Emperor of Russia immediately retired with his army to his dominions. Hanover was bestowed on the King of Prussia, as a reward for his neutrality in

**Peace of
Presburg.**

the war. The failure of the coalition against France produced such effect upon the mind of Mr. Pitt, the English Prime Minister, as to hurry him to an early grave.

30. In February, 1806, Napoleon sent an army to take possession of Naples, because the Neapolitan king, Ferdinand, and his queen, Caroline, had received a force of English and Russians in their capital. Ferdinand and his court fled to Sicily, and Napoleon conferred the crown of Naples on his brother, Joseph Bonaparte. Louis Bonaparte, another of Napoleon's brothers, was made King of Holland.

Joseph Bonaparte, King of Naples, and Louis, King of Holland.

31. Napoleon formed various territories in Germany into dukedoms, which he bestowed on his leading marshals; and fourteen princes in Southern and Western Germany formed "The Confederation of the Rhine," and acknowledged Napoleon as their head, with the title of "Protector." Francis II. now renounced the title of Emperor of Germany, and assumed the title of Emperor of Austria. This was the end of the German Empire, which had existed for 1006 years

The Confederacy of the Rhine.

32. Causes were now at work which soon ripened into a war between France and Prussia. The Prussian king was exasperated at the violation of Prussian territory by the French during their war with Austria, and was deeply mortified when Napoleon prevented the forming of a North German Confederation in opposition to the Confederation of the Rhine. When Napoleon, who was at this time negotiating for peace with Great Britain, proposed to restore Hanover to the king of that country, the indignation of the Prussian cabinet was aroused to such a degree that war with France was resolved upon immediately. (August, 1806.)

War with Prussia.

33. The Prussians soon poured into Saxony. Napoleon, with his usual promptitude, marched against the

**Battles of
Saalfeld,
Jena, and
Auerstadt.**

Prussians with a gigantic force. The first engagement occurred at Saalfeld, where Prince Louis of Prussia was defeated and killed, on the 10th of October, 1806. On the 14th of the same month (October, 1806), Napoleon, with 100,000 men, annihilated 100,000 Prussians in the great battle of Jena. On the same day, a French force, under Marshal Davoust, wasted a Prussian force in the battle of Auerstadt. In these two battles, the French lost 20,000 men, and the Prussians 40,000. The gallant Duke of Brunswick, the Prussian commander, was mortally wounded at Auerstadt.

34. The battles of Jena and Auerstadt placed the Prussian monarchy prostrate before the power of Napoleon. On the 25th of October, 1806, Marshal Davoust, with a portion of the French army, entered Berlin, the Prussian capital, in triumph. The Prussian fortresses quickly fell into the hands of the French. The Prince of Hohenlohe, with 17,000 men, surrendered to the French at Prenzlau. King Frederic William III. fled to Königsburg, whence he vainly endeavored to obtain peace.

**Surrender of
Prussian
fortresses.**

35. In November, 1806, Napoleon issued a series of decrees at Berlin, declaring all the ports of the British Islands to be in a state of blockade, and excluding British manufactures from the ports of Continental Europe; thus establishing what was known as "The Continental System."

**"The Conti-
nental
System."**

36. The King of Prussia in his distress solicited the aid of the Emperor Alexander of Russia, who sent a powerful army under Bennigsen to unite with the Prussians. The region of the Vistula and Oder was deluged with blood; and the Russians were driven into Poland by the French, who occupied Warsaw on the 30th of November; but the Russians had the advantage in the battle of Pultusk, on the 26th of December.

**Movements
against the
Russians.**

37. On the 8th of February, 1807, a sanguinary, but indecisive battle was fought at Eylau, in East Prussia, between 100,000 French troops under Napoleon, and the same number of Russians under Beningsen. Each army lost 20,000 men, and both were so weakened that military operations were suspended for several months. Battle of Eylau.

38. On the 24th of May, 1807, the strongly-fortified Prussian town of Dantzic, on the Baltic coast, was surrendered, with its garrison of 17,000 men under Kalckreuth, and 900 cannon, to the French under Marshal Lefebvre, after a vigorous siege. Fall of Dantzic.

39. At length the campaign between the main armies opened; and on the 5th of June, 30,000 French troops were disastrously repulsed in an attack upon the strong Russian position at Hielsberg. On the 14th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Marengo, the Russian army under Beningsen was severely defeated by Napoleon, in the great battle of Friedland, and compelled to retreat to the banks of the Niemen. Battle of Hielsberg and Friedland.

40. Hostilities were now suspended, and the French and Russian Emperors met on a raft in the middle of the Niemen, where negotiations were opened, which ended in the peace of Tilsit, signed on the 7th of July, 1807. Prussia was partitioned: the Eastern portion, which had once formed a part of the kingdom of Poland, was erected into the Grand-Duchy of Warsaw, and bestowed on the Elector of Saxony, who was in alliance with Napoleon; out of the Western portion was formed the Kingdom of Westphalia, which was conferred on Jerome Bonaparte, Napoleon's brother. The King of Prussia was left in possession of scarcely half his dominions, and even these would have been taken from him had it not been for the generous intercession of the Emperor Alexander in his behalf. The Emperor of Rus- Peace of Tilsit.

sia agreed to aid Napoleon in his designs for the destruction of the commerce of Great Britain, by the exclusion of British manufactures from the Russian dominions.

41. Although Russia and Prussia concluded peace with France, the eccentric Gustavus IV., King of Sweden, obstinately continued the war, and held fast to his alliance with Great Britain. Russia, which by the peace of Tilsit became the ally of France, now declared war against Sweden; and a Russian army invaded the Swedish province of Finland, and captured the towns of Helsingfors and Sweaborg, while the French captured Stralsund and the island of Rugen. This war continued for several years.

The Swedish war.

42. England, alarmed at the united efforts of France and Russia against her commerce, and fearing that Napoleon would compel Denmark to aid in shutting up the Baltic against British vessels, sent a powerful fleet under Admiral Lord Gambier, conveying 20,000 land troops, under Sir Arthur Wellesley to Copenhagen, for the purpose of obtaining possession of the Danish fleet as a pledge until the close of the war. As the Danish Government refused to surrender its fleet, a four days' bombardment of Copenhagen by the British army and navy followed (September 2-5, 1807), reducing a great part of the town to ashes, when the Danish fleet was surrendered. This outrageous and unprovoked attack of a strong power, upon a weaker one excited universal indignation throughout Europe. Denmark, greatly exasperated, formed an alliance with Russia and France, and declared war against England and Sweden.

England and Denmark—Bombardment of Copenhagen.

43. Napoleon was now determined to deprive England of her commerce with Portugal, and, for the accomplishment of this object, he negotiated with the weak and dissolute court of Spain. The ignorant and wicked Godoy, who was

Usurpation of the throne of Portugal.

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the Prime-Minister of Spain, and who had received the title of "Prince of Peace," was promised a principality in Portugal, as his reward for his aid in the unprincipled scheme of the French Emperor. When the Prince-Regent of Portugal refused to announce his alliance with England and close the Portuguese ports against British vessels, Napoleon published a decree declaring that "the House of Braganza had ceased to reign;" and a French army under Junot was sent to take possession of Portugal. The cowardly royal family of Portugal, instead of offering any resistance to the invaders of their dominions, fled in English vessels to Rio Janiero, the capital of the Portuguese colony of Brazil, in South America. On the 30th of November, 1807, three days after the Portuguese court had left the shores of their European dominions, the French army occupied Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, without resistance.

44. The wretched condition of Spain under the weak monarch, Charles IV., and his wicked queen and her unprincipled and ignorant favorite, Godoy, "The **Deethronement of the King of Spain.**" had made that kingdom contemptible in the eyes of all nations. Godoy, as well as the king and the queen, was unpopular with the Spanish people, and when he proposed to remove the royal family to South America, a violent insurrection broke out, which deprived Godoy of his power, and compelled Charles IV. to abdicate his throne in favor of his son Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, who was immediately hailed as king by the Spanish people. The weak Charles invoked the aid of the French Emperor in his behalf, and declared that his abdication was an involuntary act. By a series of intrigues, Napoleon induced Charles and Ferdinand to refer their disputes to his decision, and enticed them along with Godoy and the Queen to Bayonne. Napoleon having the whole royal family of Spain in his power, kept them close prisoners, and compelled both

Charles and Ferdinand to abdicate, and declared that the dynasty of the Bourbons should no longer reign in Spain. Napoleon named his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, King of Spain, while Joachim Murat, his brother-in-law, received the crown of the kingdom of Naples.

45. The Spanish people arose almost unanimously against the usurpation of Napoleon, and resolved that none but their lawful sovereign should reign over them. A fierce insurrection against the French broke out in Madrid, and 600 of Murat's troops were put to death. Murat succeeded in quelling the insurrection, but disgraced his name by a bloody massacre of the insurgents. Provisional juntas were formed in many of the chief cities of the Spanish kingdom, for the purpose of conducting affairs; armies were raised for the defense of the country; and a fierce guerilla war was commenced against the French invaders.

46. The Spanish patriots were at first victorious in their struggle against the usurpers of their government. A French fleet at Cadiz, blockaded by a British fleet, was compelled to surrender; Marshal Moncey, with 8,000 French troops, was repulsed in an assault upon Valencia; Saragossa was bravely defended by a Spanish force under the gallant Palafox; and finally on the 20th of July, 1808, the French General Dupont and 20,000 men were compelled to lay down their arms at Baylen, to the Spaniards under the brave Castanos; and Joseph Bonaparte, who had entered Madrid on that very day, was soon obliged to flee, and the French were driven across the Ebro, into the North-eastern part of the Spanish peninsula.

47. The Portuguese people also rose in insurrection against the French invaders of their country, and a Provisional Junta was established at Oporto. An English army, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, which had been sent to assist the Portuguese, defeated the French army under Junot

**Beginning of
the Penin-
sular war.**

**Spanish suc-
cesses—Du-
pont's capitu-
lation at
Baylen.**

**Events in
Portugal—
Battle of
Vimiera—
Convention
of Cintra.**

at Vimiera, on the 21st of August, 1808. On the following day (August 22, 1808), the Convention of Cintra was concluded between Junot and the English general Dalrymple, by which the French agreed to evacuate Portugal, on condition of being conveyed to France in English vessels.

48. The many reverses of the French arms in the Spanish peninsula induced Napoleon to cross the Pyrenees at the head of 180,000 men, in the early part of November, 1808, to recover what had been lost. The Spanish patriots now suffered several disasters; at Reynosa, the French under Marshal Victor defeated the Spaniards under Blake; at Burgos, Marshal Soult, with French troops, overthrew the Spanish Count de Belvedere; and at Tudela, Marshal Lannes, with another French force, beat the Spaniards under Palafox and Castanos. On the 4th of December, Napoleon entered Madrid in triumph.

49. A British army under Sir John Moore, which was marching to the aid of the Spaniards, was compelled to make a hasty retreat to Corunna, on the North-eastern coast of Spain, where, while preparing to embark, it was attacked, on the 16th of January, 1809, by the French under Marshal Soult. The French were repulsed and compelled to retreat; but the gallant Sir John Moore fell mortally wounded by a cannon-ball from the enemy while animating his troops. He soon expired, and was buried by torch-light, on the ramparts of Corunna.

50. On the 20th of February, 1809, the city of Saragossa, almost reduced to a heap of ruins, fell into the hands of the French, and Palafox, the heroic commander of the Spanish force which had garrisoned the city, was conveyed a prisoner to France. At length, the English army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, after driving the French from Portugal, ad-

Napoleon in Spain—Defeat of the Spaniards.

Battle of Corunna.

Fall of Saragossa—Battle of Talavera.

vanced into Spain, and, on the 26th of July, gained a glorious victory over the French, in the battle of Talavera. Seville was taken by the French, but Cadiz, the seat of the Grand National Junta, was successfully defended against every attack.

51. The Emperor of Austria, subsidized by British gold, and encouraged by the military ardor of his subjects, began a war against France in the beginning of April, 1809. Large bodies of Austrian troops, which were marched into Bavaria and Italy, threatened to overwhelm the scattered detachments of Napoleon's army. Napoleon suddenly appeared in Bavaria, on the 17th of April, and assumed the command of the French forces assembled there. On the 22d of April, 1809, after four days of sanguinary encounters at Abensberg and Eckmühl, Napoleon totally annihilated the Austrian army under the Archduke Charles. Napoleon entered Vienna on the 13th of May, but he was repulsed in the battles of Aspern and Eslingen, on the 21st and 22d of May. (1809.) During these two days the French lost 12,000 men in killed and wounded. Among the mortally wounded on the side of the French was the brave Marshal Lannes, who had both legs shot off.

52. On the 5th of July, 1809, Napoleon gained a victory in the battle of Wagram, not far from Vienna, which placed the Austrian Empire at his mercy. The truce of Znaim soon followed; and on the 14th of October, 1809, the Peace of Vienna was concluded, at the palace of Shoenbrunn, by which Austria was obliged to relinquish territory containing 3,000,000 inhabitants.

53. While the war between the French and the Austrians, of which we have just spoken, was in progress, the brave inhabitants of the mountainous country called the Tyrol, rose in insurrection against the King of Bavaria, under whose dominion

War with
Austria—
Battles of
Eckmühl
and Aspern.

Battle of
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their country had been placed by the Peace of Presburg, in 1805. The Tyroléss mountaineers, headed by Andreas Hofer, resisted the Bavarians successfully; and it was only after two large French armies had been sent against the insurgents that the revolt was suppressed and the Tyrol again brought under the authority of Bavaria. The gallant Hofer was afterwards shot in Mantua for attempting to excite a second revolt.

54. A quarrel now arose between Napoleon and Pope Pius VII. When the Pope refused to lay an embargo on British vessels in the ports of the States of ^{Napoleon's quarrel with Pope Pius VII.} the Church, and form an alliance with France, Napoleon annexed a part of the papal territory to the French Empire. When, during the last war between France and Austria, the Pope sided with the Austrians, Napoleon declared the Pope's temporal power at an end. The Holy Father, intensely exasperated, fulminated an excommunication against the French Emperor, whereupon he was seized and carried to France, where he remained a prisoner until the beginning of 1814.

55. In the North of Europe, the Swedish war still continued, and the forces of Denmark, France, and Russia, reduced the Swedish kingdom to great distress. The Swedish people were anxious for ^{Revolution in Sweden.} peace, and as their eccentric king, Gustavus IV., obstinately persisted in his determination to continue the war, he was dethroned by the Swedish Diet, and his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, was raised to the Swedish throne, with the title of Charles XIII. The Peace of Frederickshamn was then concluded, by which Sweden ceded the province of Finland to Russia.

56. For reasons of state, Napoleon was now to ally himself with one of the oldest and most illustrious of the royal families of Europe. After having, on ^{Napoleon marries Maria Louisa.} the 15th of December, 1809, obtained a divorce from Josephine, to whom he was tenderly

attached, he married the Archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor Francis of Austria, early in 1810. The nuptials were celebrated with great pomp, on the 22d of April, 1810. Napoleon's marriage with Maria Louisa seemed to strengthen his power, but it was really the cause of his fall, as the other powers of Europe feared that, secured by the Austrian alliance, he would attempt to bring all Europe under his sway.

57. When Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, relaxed the severity of the blockade of the ports of his dominions, and permitted the importation of English goods, he was deprived of his crown by his brother, the Emperor, and his kingdom, together with the greater part of Northern Germany, was annexed to the French Empire.

58. The Prince of Augustenburg, the heir of Charles XIII. of Sweden, suddenly died, whereupon the Swedish Diet chose Charles John Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, Crown Prince of Sweden, and successor of Charles XIII. to the Swedish throne. Napoleon very reluctantly yielded his consent to this choice. On the death of Charles XIII., in 1818, Bernadotte ascended the throne of Sweden, which he held until his death, in the year 1844.

59. The war was still raging in the Spanish peninsula, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had just been created Lord Wellington, was in chief command of the English, Spanish, and Portuguese armies. On the 10th of July, 1810, the Spaniards were compelled to surrender the strong fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo to the French army under Marshal Massena; but the British under Wellington repulsed an attack by Massena at Busaco, on the 27th of September, 1810. Wellington, acting on the defensive, then retreated to the strong lines of Torres Vedras, which covered Lisbon. Massena, wasting some time in useless assaults upon these

The war in the Spanish peninsula—retreat to Torres Vedras.

impregnable lines, was at length obliged to retrace his steps. (November, 1810.)

60. The Peninsular War was continued with vigor on both sides throughout the year 1811, and the French forces were greatly harassed by the Spanish guer-
rilla parties. On the 10th of March, 1811, the strong Spanish force of Badajoz surrendered to the French under Marshal Soult; but on the 16th of May, Soult was defeated in the battle of Albuera, by the allied English, Spanish, and Portuguese forces, under the command of Marshal Beresford. The future of Napoleon's great empire seemed to be secured by the birth, in March, 1811, of a son who received the title of "King of Rome."

The Peninsular War—
Spanish guer-
rilla parties.

61. The events in the Spanish peninsula during the year 1812 were generally unfavorable to the French arms. The last important French victory in the peninsula was the capture of the city of Valencir by Marshal Suchet, on the 9th of January, 1812. The English army under Wellington captured Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, early in the year. At length, on the 22d of June, 1812, was fought the important battle of Salamanca, in which the English, commanded by Wellington, gained a brilliant victory over the French army under Marshal Marmont; and Joseph Bonaparte fled from Madrid, which was then occupied by the British army; but when the French forces in the peninsula were concentrated, Wellington again retreated to Portugal, where he remained until the following year.

The Peninsular War—
Wellington's
retreat.

62. We have already seen that, by the Peace of Tilsit, in 1807, the French and Russian Emperors became friends and allies, and that they united in the maritime war against England. It soon became evident that this friendship could not be permanent, and the unconcern which Alexander exhibited in the war against Austria, in 1809, increased the growing

Causes which
led to a war
with Russia.

coldness between him and Napoleon. From the moment of Napoleon's alliance with the house of Austria, Alexander perceived that it would be impossible to avoid hostilities with Napoleon; and in 1811, the diplomacy between the French and Russian cabinets began to assume a most angry character. The measures of Napoleon for destroying the trade of Great Britain, and the closing of the Russian ports against British vessels, had inflicted great injury upon Russian commerce. The complaints of the Russian merchants induced Alexander to open the ports of the dominions to British vessels upon certain conditions; and a heavy tariff was laid upon French goods. These proceedings provoked the anger of the French Emperor. The aggrandizement of Napoleon in Central Europe, and the annexation of the possessions of the Duke of Oldenburg, a near relative of Alexander, to the French Empire, destroyed the last tie of friendship between the two Emperors, and, in the spring of 1812, both began to prepare earnestly for war.

63. The Russian Emperor formed alliances with England and Sweden, and, through the mediation of the British Government, he concluded the Peace of Bucharest with the Turks, with whom the

**Preparations
of Russia.**

Russians had been at war almost constantly since the year 1806. The Russian forces, under Barclay de Tolly, Prince Bagration, and other generals, which were assembled in Poland and the Western Russian provinces, amounted to 300,000 men; but the mighty army which Napoleon assembled for the subjugation of the Russian Empire was almost twice as large.

64. On the 16th of May, 1812, Napoleon held a meeting with the Emperor of Austria, the Kings of Prussia, Naples, Westphalia, and Wurtemberg, and the Princes of the Confederation of the Rhine, at Dresden. After this grand assemblage of princes had lasted ten days, Napoleon went to assume the

**Principal as-
semblage at
Dresden.**

command of "The Grand Army," which he had assembled in Poland for the invasion of Russia. Napoleon had concluded a treaty with Austria, by which that power agreed to furnish him with 30,000 men, under the command of Prince Schwartzberg, and Prussia, by a similar treaty, agreed to furnish him with 20,000 men. "The Grand Army" now numbered more than 500,000 men, and was composed of French, Austrians, Prussians, Germans, Italians, and Poles. Of this immense host, 80,000 were cavalry. The whole number of horses belonging to the army amounted to almost 190,000.

65. On the 23d of June, 1812, Napoleon issued a declaration of war against Russia; and on the 26th, he crossed the Niemen, and invaded the Russian dominions. The Russians, in accordance with the plan of their generals, avoided battles, retreated before the advancing French forces, and laid waste the country through which they passed, so that the French army might find no subsistence from it. Napoleon, with the main body of the Grand Army, pursued the retreating Russians, and reached Wilna on the 28th, where he remained until the middle of August, when he continued his advance towards Moscow, in pursuit of the retreating Russians. Already the effects of the destructive policy of the Russians began to be felt in the French army, as 25,000 sick and dying men filled the hospitals, and 10,000 dead horses strewed the road to Wilna, and 125 pieces of artillery had been abandoned.

*Invasion of
Russia.*

66. At Smolensko, on the 17th of August, 30,000 Russians made a stand against the French. Three furious assaults upon this strongly-fortified town were repulsed by the Russians; but during the night the inhabitants set fire to the town, which was soon reduced to ashes, and fled with the army.

*Battle of
Smolensko.*

67. The Russians continued to retreat towards Moscow, pursued by the French. The scene of warfare pursued by

Barclay de Tolly and Kutusoff. The Russian general, Barclay de Tolly, was not approved by his soldiers, who were anxious for a battle with the invaders of their country. For this reason, the Emperor Alexander removed Barclay de Tolly, and appointed General Kutusoff, who had distinguished himself in the war with Turkey which had just closed, to the chief command of the Russian army.

Battle of Borodino. 68. On the 7th of September, Kutusoff risked a battle with Napoleon at Borodino, on the Moskwa, in the hope of saving Moscow. In the morning when this sanguinary engagement began, each army numbered 130,000 men. The battle had commenced at six o'clock in the morning, and when night had put an end to its horrors, 90,000 men lay dead and wounded on the field. The result of the battle was that the Russians were obliged to resume their retreat, and the French were enabled to continue their advance in the direction of Moscow.

Napoleon's Entry into Moscow. 69. At length, on the 14th of September (1812), the French army came in sight of the great city of Moscow, and beheld its lofty steeples and copper domes glittering in the sun. When the city burst upon his gaze, Napoleon exclaimed, "Behold! yonder is the celebrated city of the Czars!" The French troops rushed forward, and entered Moscow on the same day, but they were astonished to find it deserted by its 300,000 inhabitants. Only a few of the rabble remained in the city. Napoleon took up his residence in the Kremlin, or ancient palace of the Czars.

Burning of Moscow. 70. Before Moscow had been abandoned by its inhabitants, Count Rostopschin, the Russian governor, had taken measures to burn the city after the French should enter. Accordingly, on the night of the 16th (September, 1812), a vast fire was seen to emanate from the eastern part of the

city; fire soon broke out in all quarters of the city, and in a few hours the holy city of the Russians was wrapt in flames. The city had been set on fire by the 20,000 convicts whom Rostopschin, before leaving the city, had liberated for the purpose. No means were at hand for extinguishing the fire, as the fountains had been destroyed, the fire-engines carried off, and the water-pipes cut before the inhabitants had left the city. For four days, the fire continued to rage unabated, reducing the greater part of the city to ashes. When the fire had reached the Kremlin, Napoleon abandoned that edifice, and took up his abode in the imperial castle of Petrowski, three miles from the city. He returned on the 19th, and took up his quarters in that part of the Kremlin which had escaped the ravages of the fire.

71. The destruction of Moscow deprived the French army of winter-quarters; the Russian armies, which were now vastly superior to the French, threatened to cut off all communication with France; and the Russian Emperor rejected all Napoleon's proposals for peace. In this critical situation, Napoleon found himself obliged to order a retreat to Poland; and on the 19th of October (1812), Moscow was evacuated by the French army. Napoleon, however, left a division of 8,000 men under Marshal Mortier to superintend the evacuation of the city. For several days, Mortier and his brave little band defended themselves in the Kremlin against their Russian assailants, when, on the 22d, they abandoned the city to join Napoleon. Before leaving Moscow, barrels of gunpowder had been placed under various parts of the Kremlin, which were lighted by means of a fuse. No sooner had the Russians entered the Kremlin, than that venerable edifice was blown into the air, and pieces of timber, rocks, broken weapons, pieces of cannon, and mutilated bodies were thrown in every direction. The thunders of the explosion awoke Napoleon

*Napoleon's
evacuation
of Moscow.*

and his troops, thirty miles distant. Mortier and his little band reached the main army in safety.

72. On the 24th of October, a portion of the French army, under Murat, after a succession of stubborn engagements, defeated the Russians at Malo-Yarslevetz, and remained masters of the town.

**Battle of
Malo-Yars-
levetz.**

This was a useless victory for the French, who soon found themselves obliged to retreat as rapidly as possible, by the very route which their advance had exhausted.

73. The horrors of this retreat of the French army exceeded anything recorded in the annals of war. The Russians sent out their Cossacks, under Platoff,

**Disastrous
retreat of the
French Army.**

who greatly annoyed the French rear, and cut off French straggling parties, while the main divisions of the Russian army pursued the retreating French troops, and forced them to contest every inch of ground. The French army was encumbered with its sick and dying. On the 6th of November, an enemy far more terrible than the bullets of the Russians, or the lances of the Cossacks, made its appearance. This enemy was a Russian winter of unusual severity. The thermometer sank to eighteen degrees below zero, and the cold wind howled furiously over the vast steppes. The French army was becoming weaker and weaker by the casualties of battle, and by fatigue, hunger, and cold. The roads were strewn with dead and dying men and horses. The starving troops fell upon the dead and dying horses, and devoured their flesh like famished dogs; and many who had remained with the dying embers of the bivouac fire, fell asleep to wake no more. All discipline was gone, and all the heavy artillery was abandoned to the pursuing Russians.

74. The main Russian army, under Kutusoff, numbering 100,000 men, advanced by a route parallel to that of the French army, while another army, under

Wittgenstein, pressed upon the French rear, ^{The pursuing Russian armies.} and Platoff's Cossacks harassed the retreating troops, and cut off such as were so unfortunate as to stray from their ranks. On the 9th of November, Napoleon and his wearied troops reached Smolenako, where they rested until the 15th, when the disastrous retreat was renewed. The French rear-guard, under Marshal Ney, was almost totally destroyed.

75. In the battles of Krasnoi, on the 16th, 17th, and 18th of November, the French lost 30,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Ney's fortunate, but dangerous, passage of the frozen Dnieper, was ^{Battles of Krasnoi.} one of the most daring feats recorded in history. The troops crossed the thin ice in safety, but the wagons containing the sick and wounded sank, amid the shrieks of the unfortunate sufferers.

76. The most horrible of this series of horrors was the passage of the Beresina. While the French were passing over the bridges, the enemy under Wittgenstein and Platoff appeared, and opened a ^{The terrible passage of the Beresina} heavy attack upon them. One of the bridges, unable to bear the weight of the crowd upon it, broke, thus precipitating into the stream thousands, whose dying shrieks were heard loud above the roar of the Russian cannon and the cheers of the Cossacks. Many who attempted to cross over the other bridge were swept off by the Russian artillery, or thrown over in the confusion by their comrades. The following spring, when the ice melted, 36,000 dead bodies were found in the channel of the Beresina.

77. The mournful disaster just related completed the destruction of Napoleon's Grand Army. When the remnant of the French army reached the Niemen, ^{Destruction of the Grand Army.} the rear guard, under Marshal Ney, was reduced to thirty men. The veteran marshal, bearing a musket and pointing it at the pursuing enemy,

was the last of the Grand Army that left the Russian territory. Napoleon had already left the army on the 5th of December, and started in a sledge for Paris, where he arrived on the 18th. In this disastrous campaign, the losses of Napoleon were as follows: 125,000 men killed in battle; 132,000 died from cold, hunger, and fatigue; and 193,000 made prisoners by the Russian. The total loss was 450,000 men.

78. Late in May, 1813, Lord Wellington reentered Spain, and, on the 21st of June, he annihilated the French forces, under Marshal Jourdain and Joseph Bonaparte, in the decisive battle of Vittoria. The result of this battle was that the French were compelled to evacuate the entire Spanish peninsula, and to retire into their own territories, before the close of the year. After reducing the strong fortresses of St. Sebastian and Pampeluna, Wellington pursued the retreating French across the Pyrenees, into their own territory; and on the 10th of November (1813), he defeated the French forces, commanded by Marshal Soult, on the Nivelle.

**The Peninsular War—
Battle of
Vittoria—
Expulsion of
the French.**

79. The moral effect of the Russian disaster was a far more serious misfortune to Napoleon than the loss of his great army; as it destroyed the belief in his invincibility, and consequently encouraged the subject nations to throw off the supremacy before which they had been compelled to bow, and to assert their former dignity and independence. It proved to be, as Talleyrand called it, "The beginning of the end."

**Moral effect
of the Russian
disaster:**

80. Prussia was the first of the powers which had suffered from the influence of the great conqueror, to take advantage of the great misfortune which had befallen him. As early as December, 1812, the Prussian general Yorck, who had commanded under the French marshal Macdonald in the Rus-

**War spirit of
Prussia.**

sian campaign, had entered into an agreement with the Russian marshal Diebitsch to cease from hostilities against Russia. Although the conduct of Yorek was at first disapproved by the Prussian Government, the patriotic war spirit of the Prussian people was every day becoming more manifest. At length, on the 3d of February, 1813, Prussia concluded an alliance with Russia and Sweden, and declared war against the French Emperor. The greatest enthusiasm pervaded all classes of the Prussian people on this action of their government, and noble and peasant offered their services in the cause of their country's liberation from foreign domination.

81. In the meantime, Napoleon had raised a new army of 350,000 men, and in the month of April, 1813, he marched this immense force into Germany. Frederic Augustus, King of Saxony, through fear of the French Emperor, held fast to his alliance with France, and Saxony became the theatre of hostilities.

*Invasion of
Germany by
Napoleon.*

82. On the 2d of May, 1813, Napoleon gained a victory over the allied Russian and Prussian armies at Lutzen after a terrific conflict, in which the Prussian General Scharnhorst and the French Marshal Bessieres were slain. After a desperate engagement at Bautzen, on the 20th (May, 1813), Napoleon was again victorious, but the brave French Marshal Duroc was killed.

*Battles of
Lutzen and
Bautzen.*

83. Through the mediation of Austria, an armistice was soon agreed upon between the belligerent parties, and a Congress, composed of ambassadors of the several powers, was convened at Prague, to consider terms of peace. As Napoleon absolutely refused to restore the independence of Germany, the armistice terminated on the 10th of August, when the Emperor of Austria joined the allies, and declared war against his son-in-law.

*Congress at
Prague.*

84. Hostilities were now resumed with vigor; and on

the 26th and 27th of August, Napoleon defeated the combined Austrian, Russian, and Prussian forces in the battle of Dresden. In this battle General Moreau, who had been called from America by the Emperor of Russia, was mortally wounded.

**Battle of
Dresden.**

85. The advantages which Napoleon might have secured by his victory at Dresden, were lost by the defeats sustained by his generals at other points. On the 26th of August, the Prussians under Blücher defeated Macdonald on the Katzbach, in Silesia. On the 30th of the same month, Vandamme, with 10,000 French troops, finding himself surrounded by the allied Austrian, Russian, and Prussian armies, was compelled to surrender at Culm, in North-western Bohemia, after a bloody battle of two days. On the 23d of August, a French division, under General Oudinot, was defeated at Gros-Beeren, near Berlin, by the Prussians and Swedes under the command of the Crown Prince of Sweden. On the 6th of September, Marshal Ney was badly beaten at Dennewitz, not far from Wittenberg, by the Prussian and Swedish forces.

**Battles of
Katzbach,
Culm, Gros-
Beeren, and
Dennewitz.**

86. Bavaria now concluded the Treaty of Ried with Austria, and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine were beginning to join the allies. In the beginning of October, the Russians, under Barclay de Tolly and Benningsen, the Prussians under Blücher, the Swedes under Bernadotte, and the Austrians under Prince Schwartzberg, were concentrated in the vicinity of Leipsic. The allied armies, thus united, numbered 300,000 men, and were all placed under the command of the Austrian general, Prince Schwartzberg. To oppose this immense host, Napoleon had only 200,000 troops.

**Concentra-
tion of the Al-
lied Armies.**

87. On the 16th, 17th, and 18th of October, 1813, was fought the terrible battle of Leipsic, in which half a mil-

lion of men were engaged in the work of death. The carnage was frightful. The French troops resisted the assaults of the enemy with great bravery, but the superiority of the allies in numerical strength prevailed, and Napoleon was in the end defeated with heavy loss. Napoleon was obliged to order a retreat; and on the morning of the 19th, the French army abandoned Leipsic, which was then taken possession of by the allies. The Saxon troops now turned their artillery against the retreating French army, and joined the allies. The order for the destruction of the Elster bridge over the Elbe, at Leipsic, had been executed so hastily that 30,000 French troops, unable to cross, were compelled to surrender to the enemy. The brave Pole, Poniatowski, who had fought bravely in the French army, was drowned while attempting to cross.

**Battle of
Leipsic.**

88. The French now made a hasty retreat toward the Rhine. The Austro-Bavarian army under General Wrede, attempting to intercept the retreat of the French army, met with a defeat at Hanau; but the retreat now became a rapid flight, and it was with great difficulty that Napoleon was enabled to cross the Rhine with his shattered army.

**Hasty retreat
of the French
to the Rhine.**

89. The consequences of the battle of Leipsic, and the defeat of Napoleon, were the dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine, the restoration of the Elector of Hesse-Cassel and the Dukes of Brunswick and Oldenburg to their governments, and the downfall of the kingdom of Westphalia—events which followed in rapid succession. Baden and Wurtemberg entered into treaties with Austria, and joined their forces to those of the allies. Holland also revolted against the French Emperor, and re-established its independence. The King of Denmark, who had firmly adhered to his alliance with Napoleon, was compelled to cede Norway to Sweden by the Peace of Kiel, early in January, 1814.

**Consequences
of Napoleon's
defeat.**

90. Fortune was also averse to the French in Italy, where the viceroy, Eugene Beauharnais, was defeated by the Austrians under General Hiller. Murat, King of Naples, and brother-in-law to Napoleon, entered into a secret alliance with Austria, early in 1814, for the expulsion of the French from Italy. Early in 1814, Pope Pius VII. was restored to his authority in Rome.

**Misfortunes
to the French
in Italy.**

91. As Napoleon refused to agree to a peace by surrendering any of the countries which he had conquered, and had raised a new army of 300,000 men, the allied monarchs determined upon his dethronement, and with this view they ordered their armies to cross the Rhine. France was now to be invaded on all sides, and the evils and humiliations which she had inflicted upon other nations were to be retaliated upon herself. On the 1st of January, 1814, Blucher, with the Silesian army, consisting of Prussians and Russians, crossed the Rhine, between Mannheim and Coblenz; while Prince Schwartzberg, with the allied grand army of 100,000 men, composed chiefly of Austrians, advanced into France through Switzerland. Another army, consisting of Prussians under Bulow, and Russians under Winzengerode, invaded France by way of Holland, and soon united with the Silesian army. Wellington, with the English army, after driving the French from the Spanish peninsula, pursued them across the Pyrenees, into their own territories, captured Bayonne, and a portion of his forces under Marshal Beresford took Bordeaux, where the Bourbons were proclaimed by the people.

**Invasion of
France by the
allies.**

92. Blucher and Schwartzberg united their armies in Champagne, and after fighting with Napoleon the indecisive battle of Brienne, on the 27th of January, 1814, gained a victory in the battle of La Rothiere, on the 1st of February. But

**Battles of
Brienne and
La Rothiere.**

the allied armies again separated; and the French Emperor, whose great military talents again shone forth in all their brilliancy, inflicted severe defeats upon Blücher at Champaubert, Montmirail, Chateau-Thierry, and Vauchamps. He then suddenly fell upon and defeated Schwartzberg at Montereau; and on the night of the 23d of February, the French bombarded Troyes, and compelled the allies to evacuate the town. Napoleon afterwards successfully attacked Soissons. Blücher fought with the French the battle of Craonne, on the 7th of March, and the battle of Laon, on the 9th of the same month. Napoleon afterwards attacked Rheims, which he compelled the Russians to evacuate. The French were defeated in the battle of Arcis, on the 20th of March.

93. Flushed with his success, Napoleon suddenly broke off the negotiations for peace, which had just been opened at Chatillon, and thus hastened his speedy ruin. Had he listened to the reasonable terms offered by the allied powers, he might have remained on the throne of France.

Unsuccessful
negotiations
for peace.

94. For the purpose of frightening the allies into a retreat into Germany, Napoleon, by a bold march, placed his army in their rear. The allies, seeing the way to Paris open, marched upon the city and took the heights of Montmartre, which covered the capital.

Capture of
Paris by the
Allies.

Joseph Bonaparte, to whom Napoleon had entrusted the defense of the capital, retired with the Empress Maria Louisa and the regency to Blois; and on the 31st of March, 1814, Marshals Mortier and Marmont, perceiving the folly of any further resistance, surrendered Paris to the enemy; and on the same day, the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia entered that proud capital. A provisional government was now formed, at the head of which was Talleyrand, who had deserted the cause of Napoleon, and who now devoted himself to the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of France.

95. On the 2d of April, 1814, Napoleon was formally deposed by the French Senate, and, after vainly endeavoring to secure the crown of France to his son, he signed, on the 6th of April, 1814, the unconditional abdication of the thrones of France and Italy. On the 10th of April, 1814, a few days after the abdication of Napoleon, the English army, under Wellington, won a brilliant victory at Toulouse, over the French army commanded by Marshal Soult. A few days after the battle, news of the capture of Paris and the fall of Napoleon reached both armies, and hostilities were suspended.

**Abdication of
Napoleon.**

96. On the 11th of April, 1814, Napoleon agreed to a treaty with the allies at Fontainebleau, by which he received the sovereignty of the little island of Elba, in the Mediterranean sea, and an income of 2,000,000 francs. On the 20th of April (1814) Napoleon ordered the Imperial Guard to be assembled in the court-yard of Fontainebleau, and, amid the tears of the gallant veterans, he took leave of them with a sad heart. He then started for Elba, where he arrived on the 4th of May, 1814.

**Napoleon
sent to Elba.**

97. The Count of Provence, brother of Louis XVI., returning from his long exile, entered Paris on the 3d of May, 1814, and was received with demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants. He was now seated on the throne of France, with the title of Louis XVIII. He was required to govern according to a constitution, called "The Charter," by which the powers of the king were limited, and the rights of the French people defined and secured. On the 30th of May, 1814, a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, between France and the allied powers, by which the boundaries of France were restricted to what they had been in 1792; and the general tranquillity of Europe appeared to be secured.

**Louis XVIII.
First Peace
of Paris.**

CHAPTER CIX.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.—(*Continued.*)

THE RESTORED BOURBONS AND THE HUNDRED DAYS (1814-1815).

1. THE Bourbons were no sooner restored to the throne of France, than they endeavored to re-establish the state of things which existed before the Revolution, and their imprudent and impolitic conduct excited the Bonapartists and the Republicans against them. The tri-colored cockade was displaced by the white ensign of the Bourbons, and the memory of the Republic and of the Empire was, as much as possible, obliterated. The stipulated pension which was to be paid to Napoleon was also withheld. These and other causes led to the formation of plots for the restoration of Napoleon to power. The majority of the French people felt deeply the humiliation of living under a king forced upon them by foreign bayonets, and longed for that Emperor under whose banners their armies had so often been led to battle and to victory.

*Impolitic
conduct of the
Bourbons.*

2. A Congress composed of ambassadors of the allied powers had assembled at Vienna, on the 25th of September, 1814, for the settlement of European affairs. Divisions arose in the Congress on the question of the rearrangement of the conquered countries; but when the astounding intelligence that Napoleon had left Elba, and had landed on the southern coast of France, reached the Congress, all divisions were cast aside; and the Congress unanimously agreed to take vigorous measures for the overthrow of the man whose ambition troubled the world.

*Congress at
Vienna.*

3. Encouraged by the discontent of the French people with the rule of the Bourbons, Napoleon left Elba; and on the 1st of March, 1815, he landed at Cannes, near Frejus, on the southern coast of France. He was accompanied by only 1,000 men; but he trusted that the prestige of his name, and the

*Return of
Napoleon.*

zealous attachment of the troops whom he had so often led to victory, would restore him to power. The troops that had been sent against him joined his standard with the wildest enthusiasm. The tri-color was again displayed everywhere. The citizens of Grenoble opened their gates to him, and Colonel Labedoyere joined him with the garrison of the town. The Count of Artois, brother of King Louis XVIII., vainly endeavored to keep the troops at Lyons firm in their allegiance to their king. They unanimously declared for Napoleon, crying "Vive l'Empereur!" and Marshal Ney, who had been sent against Napoleon, and who had sworn that he would bring the emperor to Paris in chains, joined him with the troops. All the old marshals, except Marmont, Macdonald and Augereau, espoused the cause of Napoleon, who entered Paris on the evening of the 20th of March, 1815, Louis XVIII. having left the city on the morning of the same day. Thus, in the course of three weeks, without one drop of bloodshed, Napoleon was again master of all France. Then began the period historically known as "The Hundred Days."

4.—On the landing of Napoleon at Cannes, Murat broke off his alliance with Austria, and summoned the Italian people to arms against that power.

Murat's Fall. Advancing northward, at the head of the Neapolitan army, Murat was defeated by the Austrians, in the battle of Tolentino, on the 23d of May, 1815. He then fled to France, and his kingdom of Naples reverted to its former sovereign, Ferdinand. Napoleon, indignant because of Murat's desertion of his cause in 1814, refused to receive him in Paris. After remaining for some time in Southern France, Murat sailed for Corsica, whence he made a descent on the Italian coast, for the purpose of recovering his lost kingdom, but he was taken prisoner, and shot in accordance with the sentence of a military commission.

5. The Congress of Vienna, when informed of the events which had transpired in France, declared that "The Emperor Napoleon had placed himself beyond the pale of society, and that, as an enemy and a disturber of the peace of Europe, he had made himself liable to public vengeance." At the same time, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and England, entered into a treaty, by which they agreed to raise an army of 600,000 men, to crush the man whom no treaties could bind. Napoleon raised a new army of 120,000 men. In the meantime, the allies were preparing to invade France from all sides. The English under Wellington, and the Prussians under Blucher, were concentrating in Belgium. The Austrians were advancing through Northern Italy, and the Russians were rapidly hastening to the theatre of action. For the purpose of preventing France from again becoming the seat of war, Napoleon with 120,000 men, advanced into Belgium, about the middle of June, 1815, with the view of annihilating the armies of Wellington and Blucher.

6. On the 15th of June, 1815, Napoleon assaulted Charleroi, and compelled the Prussians, under Ziethen, to evacuate the town. At about noon, on the 16th (June, 1815), Napoleon, at the head of 80,000 men, attacked 30,000 Prussians, under Blucher, at Ligny; while, at the same time Ney, with 30,000, assailed the English under Wellington, at Quatre Bras. The battle of Ligny was long and bloody, and ended in the defeat of the Prussians, who retired and left the field in the possession of Napoleon. After a desperate engagement at Quatre-Bras, in which the gallant Duke William of Brunswick was mortally wounded, the English were victorious, and Napoleon was obliged to retire from the bloody field. Napoleon's victory at Ligny rendered the English victory at Quatre-Bras useless; and on the following day (June 17, 1815), Wellington fell back to

the village of Waterloo, about nine miles from Brussels. On the morning of the 18th, Napoleon appeared at Waterloo with 80,000 men. Wellington had 70,000. The chateau of Hougoumont and the farm-house of La Haye Sainte were strongly garrisoned with English troops. The great battle of Waterloo began at about noon, when the French opened a heavy artillery fire on the British lines, and assaulted Hougoumont, but were repulsed. A concentrated attack on the British right also failed. The French cuirassiers afterwards vainly attempted to break the English centre, but they drove back the English troops who had followed them. La Haye Sainte was captured and lost by the French infantry. The French cuirassiers next made a furious assault on the British right, only to be disastrously repulsed. Three tremendous assaults failed to break the English lines, when, at seven in the evening Marshal Ney, by direction of Napoleon, led the Imperial Guard in a furious charge upon the English troops, while, in the meantime, the British line was fiercely cannonaded. The Imperial Guards reeled before the heavy musketry fire which the English opened upon them, and Wellington, observing the confusion, ordered a bayonet charge, and the result was the complete rout of these favorite veterans of Napoleon. Blucher, with 50,000 Prussians, now came to the assistance of Wellington, who immediately assumed the offensive, and Napoleon, seeing that his Empire was lost by the fatal result of the day, left the field, and hastened to Paris, where he arrived on the 20th. The shattered remnants of the French army fled in confusion, and were pursued by the Prussians; the English, fatigued by the long and fierce contest, resting for the night on the field. The English had won a great victory, but at the cost of 15,000 men in killed and wounded. Among the killed were the gallant Sir Thomas Picton. The French had lost 40,000 men and all their cannon.

7.—After some hesitation, Napoleon yielded to the pro-

posal of the Chamber of Deputies, and abdicated the throne of France in favor of his son; whereupon a provisional government, under the direction of Fouché, was formed. After the battle of Waterloo, the English and Prussian armies marched upon Paris, which was surrendered by Fouché to Wellington and Blücher, on the condition that no individual was to be punished for his political opinions. King Louis XVIII. re-entered his capital on the 8th of July, and was again seated on the throne of France.

Second capture of Paris — Louis XVIII. restored to the Throne.

8. In the meantime, Napoleon had fled to Rochefort with the intention of escaping to America, but he found the harbor closely guarded by English war-vessels. Thus foiled, Napoleon embraced the determination of throwing himself upon the generosity of the English nation; and accordingly, on the 15th of July (1815), he went on board the British frigate *Bellerophon*, and surrendered himself a prisoner to Captain Maitland, the commander of the vessel, who took him to the coast of England, but refused to allow him to land, or to have any communication with the people on the shore. After some delay, the illustrious prisoner was informed that the allied monarchs had resolved to banish him to the small rocky island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean, where he was to be kept a close prisoner for the rest of his life. Napoleon vainly protested; and on the 18th of October, 1815, he arrived at the place of his banishment. Here he lived under the charge of the brutal governor and jailor, Sir Hudson Lowe. The unhealthy climate and the merciless treatment which he received hastened his death, which occurred on the 5th of May, 1821. In 1840, his remains were brought to Paris and interred in the Hotel des Invalides.

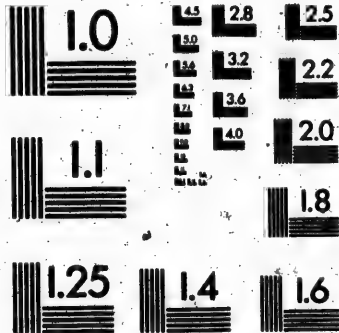
Napoleon made a prisoner and banished to St. Helena.

9. A proscription of the family and the adherents of Napoleon followed the second abdication of the Emperor



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)



Prescription of Napoleon's adherents. and the second restoration of the Bourbons. All the members of Napoleon's family, all the marshals and statesmen who had adhered to Napoleon during the Hundred Days, and all the regicides who had voted for the death of Louis XVI., were banished; and, in violation of the terms of the second capitulation of Paris, Marshal Ney and Colonel Labedoyere were condemned and shot for treason, in joining Napoleon on his return from Elba with the troops with which they had been sent against him.

10. The battle of Waterloo put an end to the long wars which the French Revolution and the ambition of Napoleon had kindled, and which had convulsed Europe for a period of twenty-three years. On the 20th of November, 1815, the second Peace of Paris was concluded between France and the allied powers, by which the boundaries of France were limited to what they had been in 1790; France was required to pay 700,000,000 francs for the expenses of the war; the works of art and literature which the French had taken from other nations were to be restored to their rightful owners; and an allied army of 150,000 men was to garrison the frontier fortresses of France for three years, for the purpose of insuring peace by putting down any attempted rising of the French people. The military power of France was thoroughly broken, her pride was lowered, and her humiliation was complete.

CHAPTER CX.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE.

1. ON the 25th of September, 1815, the three sovereigns, Alexander I. of Russia, Frederic William III. of Prussia, and Francis I. of Austria, signed, in the city of Paris, the famous compact known as "The Holy Alliance," by which they swore, "That,

Object of the Holy Alliance.

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in accordance with the principles of Holy Scripture, they would, as brothers, render each other all the assistance in their power, on every occasion."

2. The Holy Alliance was at length joined by all the sovereigns of Europe, except the Pope and the British monarch. This powerful league of princes **The Holy Alliance an instrument of oppression.** was made, as we shall presently see, an instrument for the suppression of all democratic and liberal tendencies, and the strengthening of monarchical power, under the mask of piety and religion. In a few years, popular insurrections that broke out in Italy and Spain were suppressed by the formidable league of crowned heads.

3. While princes were seeking to establish absolute governments, the people of Europe were striving for constitutional forms. A free government, like **Efforts of the people of Europe.** that enjoyed by the people of Great Britain, was what seemed most desirable to the oppressed masses of Europe.

4. After the restoration of the Bourbons, in the person of Louis XVIII., France was distracted by the contests of parties. A reaction in favor of the Royalists had taken place among the French people. The Royalists manifested the most **Contents of parties in France.** intense hatred against the Bonapartists and Republicans, who were charged with the authorship of all the misery which had been brought upon the country by twenty-three years of revolution and war.

5. The zealous Royalists, not satisfied with the moderation of the king, who tried to steer between the two extremes, demanded punishment of the Bonapartists and Republicans; and Louis XVIII., although disposed to be moderate, found himself obliged to banish all those who had caused the execution of his brother, Louis XVI. **Zeal of the Royalists—Massacre of Bonapartists and Republicans.** The Royalists (called White Jacobins), disgraced them-

selves by the bloody massacre of Bonapartists and Republicans in Marseilles, Nismes, Toulon, Toulouse, Avignon, and Lyons.

6. To gratify the reactionary party, which desired the reestablishment of the ancient despotism, the king was forced to violate, in many instances, the constitutional charter, which he had sworn to observe. He was urged, against his own will, to place restrictions upon the liberties of the people in various ways, and to increase the royal power. The influence of the Royalists prevailed to some extent; and the liberty of the press and other privileges were in a great measure restricted. In 1823, at the command of the Holy Alliance, a French army of 100,000 men, under the command of the Duke of Angoulême, was sent into Spain, to crush a revolution there. On the death of Louis XVIII., in 1824, his brother, the Count of Artois, became King of France, with the title of Charles X.

7. Great Britain emerged from the long contest with France with increased power and national glory. Her empire was greatly extended in all parts of the world; her supremacy on the sea was undisputed; her wealth and commerce were increased; and her people enjoyed more civil and political liberty than any other in Europe. But with all this national prosperity, the lower classes of the English people were sunk in extreme wretchedness and poverty.

8. The long wars with France, and the immense subsidies with which Great Britain had furnished her Continental allies, raised her national debt, to an enormous amount, and her people were borne down with the most oppressive taxes. During the European wars, the English manufacturers were enabled to carry on their business very successfully, because then the people of Continental Europe had been

compelled to relinquish all peaceful pursuits. When peace returned, the people of the Continent were enabled to return to their former occupations, and to compete successfully with the English manufacturers. The result was the decline of the prosperity of English manufacturers, and the want of employment for the English working-men, who were in consequence reduced to great distress.

9. The English people were greatly discontented with the existing state of things; and, in 1817, the British Government discovered that an extensive **Conspiracy for the overthrow of the Monarchy.** conspiracy existed throughout the kingdom for the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of an English republic in its stead. The Government thwarted the plot by suspending the writ of habeas corpus, and caused the leading conspirators to be arrested, tried, condemned, and executed.

10. For several centuries, the Barbary powers of Northern Africa had committed piracies on people of christian countries. The commanders of vessels **Lord Exmouth's expedition against Algiers.** were kept as prisoners for ransom, and the crews were reduced to slavery. It had long been the custom of christian nations to pay tribute to the pirates, as a bribe for the safety of their commerce; but the insolence of the corsairs induced the United States Government, in 1815, to send a squadron under Commodore Decatur to humble them. Decatur compelled the Dey of Algiers to accept very humiliating conditions. The English Government followed the example of America. In 1816 a British squadron under Lord Exmouth was sent against Algiers. Lord Exmouth appeared before the city of Algiers, in May, 1816, and demanded the release of all christians whom the Dey held in slavery. As Lord Exmouth received no answer to his command, he opened a heavy cannonade upon the city, which was returned by the Algerine batteries; and, after several hours

fighting, the Dey's fleet and a great part of the city were destroyed. The following morning, the Dey informed Lord Exmouth that he would set his christian slaves and captives at liberty, and the firing ceased. Twelve hundred christians were then released, and allowed to return to their homes.

11. In August, 1819, a meeting of 80,000 persons, assembled at Manchester, to discuss the question of parliamentary reform, was attacked by the military, and many victims fell. On the death of King George III., in January, 1820, his son ascended the British throne, with the title of George IV.

**Disturbance
at Manchester—
Death of
George III.**

12. After Lord Wellington's expulsion of the French from Spain, in 1813, Ferdinand VII. came into quiet possession of the Spanish throne. He began his reign with the most unrelenting tyranny over his subjects. The Inquisition was reëstablished with all its horrors; the liberal Cortes Constitution of 1812 was suppressed; and thousands who had exposed their lives in the cause of Ferdinand against the French invaders of Spain, were persecuted in the most unrelenting manner.

**Tyranny of
King Ferdi-
nand VII.**

13. The tyrannical rule of Ferdinand VII. roused the Spanish liberals against him; and, on the 1st of January, 1820, a mutiny broke out among the troops at Cadiz, who were to be sent to crush the revolution against Spanish authority in South America; and very soon the whole Spanish kingdom was in insurrection against the tyrannical king. In order to retain his crown, Ferdinand was compelled to grant his subjects the constitution of 1812. The Liberals abused their power by hasty innovations, and by persecutions of the priests and the supporters of the Apostolic party.

**Popular
insurrection.**

14. It was resolved by the members of the Holy Alliance, in a congress at Verona, to suppress the Spanish

constitution by violence; and in 1823, a French army of 100,000 men, under the Duke of Angoulême, entered Spain. The French invaders marched through the country to Cadiz, overcame all opposition on the part of the Spanish liberals, and effected the overthrow of the Cortes Constitution, and the re-establishment of the absolute power of the king. From this time, until his death, in 1833, Ferdinand VII. governed despotically.

Overthrow of the Cortes Constitution by a French army.

15. Portugal, as well as Spain, was torn by internal commotions. The Portuguese people were dissatisfied because the royal family did not return from Brazil after the termination of the Peninsular War; and popular insurrections in Lisbon and Oporto, in August, 1820, resulted in the establishment of a liberal constitution, modelled after that of Spain. In 1822, the Portuguese colony of Brazil became an independent Empire.

Popular insurrection.

16. The Portuguese Constitution was overthrown in 1823, by the apostolic party, which was composed of the clergy and the aristocracy, with the support of Don Miguel, the king's brother, at their head. King John VI. died in 1826, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his son, Don Pedro, Emperor of Brazil. Don Pedro, however, soon resigned the crown of Portugal to his infant daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, appointed his brother, Don Miguel, regent of the kingdom, and granted the Portuguese a liberal constitution.

Overthrow of the Portuguese Constitution.

17. In 1829, Don Miguel, with the support of the apostolic party, suppressed the Portuguese Constitution, and caused himself to be proclaimed King of Portugal. In 1832, Don Pedro, who had been compelled, the previous year, to abdicate his crown in Brazil, in favor of his son, Don Pedro

Usurpation of Don Miguel.

II., returned to Portugal, to defend the rights of his daughter. The constitutional party rallied to the support of Don Pedro; and, in 1834, after a bloody civil war of two years, during which Don Pedro was aided by England and France, the usurper, Don Miguel, was forced to renounce his pretensions, and to leave the kingdom; whereupon the constitution, which had been suppressed by the usurper, was reëstablished.

18. After the fall of Napoleon I. and the expulsion of the French from Italy, Ferdinand, the former King of Naples, was restored to his throne. From the time of his restoration to the Neapolitan throne, Ferdinand exercised a most unmitigated oppression over his subjects.

**Tyranny of
King Ferdi-
nand of
Naples.**

19. At length, in July, 1820, the Carbonari, an influential political society, excited a popular insurrection in the Kingdom of Naples; and the tyrannical Ferdinand was compelled to grant his subjects a constitution similar in its character to the Spanish Cortes Constitution of 1812.

**Popular in-
surrection in
Naples.**

20. In October of the same year (1820), the three crowned heads who formed the Holy Alliance held a conference at Troppau, in Austrian Silesia, where, at the instigation of Prince Metternich, the Austrian Prime Minister, they resolved to suppress the Neapolitan constitution by force of arms. King Ferdinand, of Naples, who, by invitation, met the sovereigns of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, at Laybach, in January, 1821, agreed to the proposal; and accordingly, an Austrian army of 43,000 men marched into Naples, and, after several insignificant conflicts, dispersed the revolutionary forces; whereupon King Ferdinand abolished the constitution which he had granted, and resumed his former despotic power.

**Intervention
of the Holy
Alliance.**

21. In March, 1821, a military and popular insurrec-

tion broke out in Piedmont, against the absolute rule of King Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia. On the 13th March, 1821, Victor Emmanuel abdicated the throne of Sardinia, in favor of his brother, Charles Felix; and a liberal constitution was also established in Sardinia.

Insurrection in Piedmont. 22. An Austrian army soon entered Piedmont to suppress the constitution. The revolutionists were defeated at Novara, and the Austrian forces occupied the cities of Turin and Alessandria. The Piedmontese constitution was overthrown, and absolute monarchy was reëstablished in the kingdom of Sardinia.

End of the Piedmontese Constitution. 23. Greece had been conquered by the Turks in 1481. For three centuries and a half, the tyrannical rule of the Turks had been quietly submitted to by the Greeks; but on the 7th of March, 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek, then serving as a general in the Russian army, proclaimed, from Moldavia, the independence of Greece, and, at the same time, assured his countrymen of the assistance of Russia, in their approaching struggle for liberty. But the influence of Prince Metternich, who at the Congress of Laybach, opposed giving countenance to any revolt against legitimate authority, prevented the Czar Alexander from giving any support to the Greeks, although he was at heart in sympathy with them.

Proclamation of Alexander Ypsilanti. 24. Soon after the proclamation of Ypsilanti, an insurrection against Turkish authority broke out in the village of Suda, in the Morea. The movement rapidly spread over the whole peninsula; and the insurgents declared that their purpose was to defend Christianity and civilization against Mohammedanism and barbarism.

Revolution in the Morea. 25. The rage of the Turks against the insurgent Greeks knew no bounds; and many of the Greek clergy, includ-

**Cruelty of the
Turks—Mur-
der of the
Patriarch of
Constanti-
nople.**

ing the gray-haired Patriarch of Constanti-
nople, the supreme head of the Greek Church,
were put to death. Most of the Greek families
in Constantinople fell victims to the savage
rage of the infuriated Turks, and others were driven into
exile.

26. The Sacred Band of the Greeks in Wallachia,
under the leadership of Alexander Ypsilanti, was annihi-
lated by the Turks, in the sanguinary battle
of Dragaschan, on the 19th of June, 1821.
**Annihilation
of the Sacred
Band, and
Flight of Alex-
ander Ypsilanti.**
The Greeks, like their ancestors at Thermopylæ, fought with the courage of desperation. Ypsilanti fled into the Austrian dominions,

where he was seized and kept a prisoner for years.

27. In August, 1821, the Greeks captured Navarino; and in October following, the strong fortress of Tripolitza, where they put 8000 Turks to the sword. On the 5th and 6th of September, 1821, the Greek general Ulysses defeated a large Turkish force, near the famous pass of Thermopylæ.
**Capture of
Tripolitza by
the Greeks—
Cassandra
taken by the
Turks.**
The peninsula of Cassandra was afterwards

taken by the Turks, who put 3,000 Greeks to the sword, and carried many women and children into slavery.

28. In the beginning of 1822, a Greek Congress assembled at Epidaurus. On the 13th of January, a provisional constitution was proclaimed; and on the 27th of the same month, a manifesto was issued, announcing the union of the Greeks, under a central government, under the presidency of Alexander Mavrocordato. The Greek leaders often quarrelled among themselves, but, notwithstanding this, fortune was, in general, on the side of the struggling patriots, until the summer of 1825.
**Greek Con-
gress at Epi-
daurus.**

29. In March, 1822, the inhabitants of the beautiful island of Scio rose in revolt, and put the whole of the Turkish garrison to the sword. In April, a force of Asiatic

**Desolation of
Scio by the
Turks.**

Turks spread over Scio, plundering and massacring the inhabitants, and reducing the beautiful island to a desert. Thirty thousand Sciotos were put to the sword and many women and children were sold into slavery. Soon afterwards, 150 Greek villages in Macedonia were destroyed, and many of the inhabitants were put to the sword.

**Barbarous
warfare.**

30. The war was carried on by both parties in a most barbarous manner. Thousands of Greeks were put to the sword by the enraged Turks, and when the Greeks had the opportunity, they took a bloody revenge on their cruel foes. Many of the Turkish vessels were blown up by the Greek fire-ships. On the 12th of December, 1822, the strong Turkish fortress of Napoli de Romania surrendered to the Greeks, after a furious assault.

**Victory and
death of Mar-
co Bozzaris.**

31. On the 26th of August, 1823, a Turkish army of 100,000 men was met and defeated by 500 Greeks, under the heroic Suliote leader, Marco Bozzaris, who was killed in the moment of victory. The last words of this valiant patriot were, "Could a Suliote leader die a nobler death?" Popular sympathy for the struggling Greeks was strongly manifested in France, England, and the United States; and many private individuals went from those countries to aid the patriots in their struggle for freedom. Among those who went to Greece from England was the illustrious poet, Lord Byron, who died at Missolonghi, on the 19th of April, 1824.

**Fall of
Ipsara.**

32. During the year 1824, the Turks reduced the strongly-fortified rocky island of Ipsara; but after 2,000 Turks had entered the last fort, the Greeks blew it up, and perished with their foes. In 1825, Ibrahim Pacha, son of the celebrated Mehemet Ali, Pacha of Egypt, whom the Sultan had induced to assist in the suppression of the Grecian rebellion, landed in the Morea, with 25,000 Egyptian troops, and

spread desolation throughout the whole peninsula. Ibrahim Pacha captured Navarino; but the Turks were defeated, for the third time, at Missolonghi.

33. In the latter part of 1825 Ibrahim Pacha, with 25,000 men, laid siege to Missolonghi. After many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed by the Greeks, Missolonghi fell into the hands of Ibrahim Pacha, on the 22d of April, 1826.

Siege and fall of Missolonghi. The Greek garrison of 1,800 men cut their way through the lines of the besiegers, and fled to Athens. Many of the inhabitants fled from the city when the victorious foe entered, but soon were pursued and captured; and those who remained in the city, about 1,000 in number, mostly old men, women, and children, blew themselves up in the mines, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy.

34. The heroic conduct of those Greeks who voluntarily perished at Missolonghi, and the continued devastations of Ibrahim Pacha in the Morea, aroused the European governments from their lethargy; and at the proposal of the great statesman, Canning, who then wielded the destinies of Great Britain, a treaty of alliance was concluded at London, on the 6th of July, 1827, between England, France, and Russia, by which these three powers agreed to secure for the Greeks their liberty. To enforce this treaty, a combined English, French, and Russian fleet, under the command of the English admiral, Sir Edward Codrington, was sent to the Grecian waters. The refusal of Ibrahim Pacha to evacuate the Morea occasioned the battle of Navarino, on the 20th of October, 1827, in which the allied fleet totally annihilated the Turko-Egyptian fleet.

35. The destruction of his fleet enraged more than it alarmed the Sultan, who still obstinately refused to give the Greeks their liberty, and who behaved in so insolent a manner toward the allied powers that Russia declared war against him. In

**War between
Russia and
Turkey.**

May, 1828, a Russian army of 150,000 men, under Count Wittgenstein, invaded the Ottoman dominions in Europe, and by the early part of July, had taken seven strong fortresses, among which were Brailov, Silistria, and Varna; while in Asiatic Turkey, the Russians under General Paskiewitsch were everywhere victorious. In the meantime, Ibrahim Pacha had been compelled by the French fleet to evacuate the Morea, and to restore to his Greek prisoners their freedom; and Count John Capo d'Istria was chosen President of the Grecian States.

36. In January, 1827, the Sultan received a protocol from the three allied powers, declaring that they took Greece under their own protection, and that they would consider another Turkish invasion of Greece as an attack upon themselves. This declaration, together with the rapid progress of the Russian forces, under the command of Field-Marshal Diebitsch, who had forced the passes of the Balkan mountains, and, on the 20th of August, 1829, captured Adrianople, the second city of the Turkish Empire, seriously alarmed the Sultan; and, on the 24th of September, 1829, the Peace of Adrianople was concluded between Russia and Turkey, by which the Ottoman Porte acknowledged the independence of Greece, and agreed to indemnify Russia for her expenses in the war.

37. During the Revolution, the Greek leaders often quarrelled among themselves; and in 1831, the Greek President, Count John Capo d'Istria, who, by his selection of bad advisers, had made himself unpopular, was assassinated, as he was about to enter a church. The three allied powers, England, France, and Russia, having determined to erect Greece into a constitutional monarchy, the crown was bestowed on Otho, a prince of the royal house of Bavaria, who arrived at Nauplia in 1833, and reigned as

**Declaration
of the Allied
Powers—Ad-
vance of the
Russians—
Peace of
Adrianople.**

**Assassina-
tion of Count
John Capo
d'Istria—
Otho, King
Greece—**

King of Greece, until he was hurled from the throne by the Revolution of 1862.

38. Charles X., on his accession to the throne of France, in 1824, declared his intention of confirming the constitutional charter that had been granted to the

Charles X. French people at the time of the First Bourbon Restoration, in 1814. But Charles entertaining a bitter hatred against the principles of the Revolution, and under the influence of the most bigoted priests, labored for the establishment of an absolute monarchy, on the principles of the ancient despotism. Of the Bourbons, it was said, that during their long exile, "they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing;" and Charles soon proved that he had not forgotten that his ancestors had exercised absolute power, nor had he learned that such power was dangerous to exercise. Unpopular Ministers were appointed, the freedom of the press was restricted, the National Guard was dissolved, and severe measures were adopted for dispersing popular assemblies.

39. In August, 1829, the Liberal Ministry, which had been forced upon the king by the voice of public opinion, was dismissed; and an Ultra-Royalist Cabinet **Ultra-Royalist Ministry of Polignac.** net, with Prince Jules de Polignac at its head, was appointed. This new Ministry endeavored to strengthen the royal power, and was extremely unpopular with the French people, who accused Polignac and his colleagues of a design for the subversion of popular liberty, and the reestablishment of the ancient despotism; but Polignac blindly persevered in his arbitrary schemes.

40. At the opening of the French Chambers, on the 2d of March, 1830, the speech from the throne clearly announced the king's determination to overcome by force any obstacles that might be thrown in the way of his government, and contained a threat to deprive the French people of the

The speech from the throne.

rights granted them by the charter. There was a large majority against the ministry in the Chamber of Deputies, and that body returned a frank reply to the royal speech, declaring that a concurrence did not exist between the views of the Government and the wishes of the people. The king, declaring his intention to support his ministers, prorogued the Chambers; and, on the 17th of May, a royal ordinance declared them dissolved, and ordered elections for a new Chamber.

41. In the meantime, the king and his ministers, with a view of overcoming their unpopularity by gratifying the passion of the French people for military glory, declared war against Algiers, the Dey having refused to pay long-standing claims of French citizens, and having insulted the honor of France by striking the French consul. A naval expedition, consisting of ninety-seven vessels, carrying more than 40,000 troops, sailed from Toulon on the 10th of May, 1830, and on the 14th reached the African shores. The city of Algiers was captured on the 5th of July (1830) with trifling loss on the part of the French. The Dey fled to Italy, and his treasures fell into the hands of the conquerors.

42. The news of the capture of Algiers occasioned much rejoicing in France, but did nothing toward gaining popularity for the ministry, public feeling being too decided to be thus easily affected. The elections for a new Chamber of Deputies resulted in giving the liberals a much larger majority than they had in the Chamber lately dissolved.

43. The ministry now resolved to set the popular will at defiance by measures directly subversive of the constitutional charter; and, on the morning of the 26th of July, 1830, three royal ordinances were issued: the first dissolving the newly-elected Chamber of Deputies; the second arbitrarily alter-

War with Algiers—Capture of Algiers.

Increase of the liberal majority.

The three royal ordinances.

ing the mode of election, and the third suspending the freedom of the press. To all who were acquainted with the popular feeling, it was apparent that these arbitrary measures, so subversive of popular rights, could only be executed by force; and yet no preparation had been made for this. So blind and infatuated were the king and his ministers, that they did not dream of any resistance on the part of the people. The king went on a hunting excursion, and the Prince de Polignac gave a splendid dinner to his colleagues. In the evening, mobs collected in Paris, lamps were demolished, the windows of Prince de Polignac's hotel were broken, and cries of "Down with the Ministry!" and "The Charter for ever!" were heard.

44. On the morning of the 27th (July, 1830), in defiance of the royal ordinances suspending the liberty of the press, the conductors of the liberal journals of Paris printed and distributed their papers as usual; but their types were soon seized

**Commence-
ment of the
Revolution.**

and their presses broken by the police. Marshal Marmont, who was placed in chief command of the Government troops, endeavored to assist the police in preserving order, and the ministry declared Paris in a state of siege. The streets were kept clear by the guards for the greater part of the day; and Marshal Marmont wrote to the king that quiet was restored; but during the night the citizens demolished the lamps, procured arms, and barricaded the streets with paving-stones torn up for the purpose.

45. On the morning of July 28 the streets of Paris were filled with armed citizens, who raised the glorious tri-colored flag in every direction. They carried, with trifling loss, the detached guard-houses, the arsenal, and the powder magazine.

**Street Fight-
ing on July
28th.**

At nine o'clock, the tri-color was seen to wave from the spire of the church of Notre Dame, and at eleven from

the central tower of the Hotel de Ville. Carriages and omnibuses were thrown on the sides of the streets, to obstruct the passage of the troops. The troops were exposed to a severe fire from the windows, barricades, and street corners. Tiles and stones were hurled upon them from the tops of houses, while oil and boiling water were showered upon them from the windows. The king and his ministers and Marshal Marmont were greatly surprised when they discovered that what they had at first considered merely a riot, had assumed the formidable aspect of a revolution. During the night the pavements were torn up, and the trees in the boulevards cut down, to raise obstructions for the passage of the troops.

46. The contest was renewed with terrible fury on the morning of July 29; and General Lafayette appeared among the insurgents, and assumed the command of the National Guard. At noon several regiments of the line deserted to the people. Thus reinforced, the mob stormed the Louvre and the Tuileries, from the windows of which they opened a tremendous fire upon the Swiss and royal guards. The brave defenders of the throne, unable to make any further resistance to the populace, succeeded only with great difficulty in effecting a retreat; and, at three o'clock in the afternoon, the Paris Revolution of July ended in the complete triumph of the people. The ministers now resigned their offices, and the king signed an order for the repeal of the obnoxious ordinances—but it was too late. The Parisians had already resolved that Charles X. should no longer reign. The Deputies of the new Chambers in Paris organized a provisional government, and decreed that the National Guard should be reorganized, and placed under the command of that consistent friend of rational freedom, the Marquis de Lafayette.

47. On the 31st of July (1830) Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, son of Philip Egalité, accepted the office of

**Abdication
and flight of
Charles X.**

Lieutenant-General of the French kingdom. On the 2d of August, Charles X. formally abdicated the throne of France, and his son, the dauphin, resigned his rights in favor of the king's infant grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux. No attention was paid to these proceedings. The Paris mob prepared to march in thousands to Rambouillet, to which place Charles had retired; but he did not wait for their coming. Recollecting too well the awful period of 1789, when another Paris mob marched to Versailles, he fled to England, and for a time took up his residence in Holyrood Palace, near Edinburgh. He afterwards went to Germany, and died at Goritz, in Austria, in November, 1836.

48. In the meantime, the newly-elected French Chambers assembled in Paris, and, after some debate, it was determined, that the government of France should remain a limited monarchy; and the crown was conferred on the Duke of Orleans, who, on the 9th of August, 1830, took the oath to support the constitutional charter, and ascended the throne of France, with the title of "Louis Philippe I., King of the French." Louis Philippe owed his elevation chiefly to the venerable Lafayette, who, believing the French people still unfit for a republic, preferred "a throne surrounded with republican institutions." Presenting the new citizen-king to the people, in front of the Chambers, Lafayette exclaimed: "Now we have the best of republics!"

49. The Paris Revolution of July, 1830, occasioned a violent shock throughout Europe; and gave the death-blow to the Holy Alliance. Revolutionary movements occurred in Belgium, Poland, Germany, and Italy, which alarmed absolute monarchs, and threatened consequences fatal to the general tranquillity of Europe.

50. The effects of the July Revolution of Paris first displayed themselves in Belgium. The Congress of Vienna

**Consequences
of the Paris
Revolution of
July, 1830.**

in 1815, in utter disregard of differences in language, religion, and interests, had united Holland and Belgium into one monarchy, designated "The Kingdom of the Netherlands," under the government of a prince of the House of Orange or Nassau. From the time of the incorporation of Belgium with Holland, the Belgians suffered the most unmitigated oppression from the Dutch king; and the Hollanders endeavored to force their own language, laws, and religion upon the Belgians. The Protestant courts were entrusted with the supervision of the education of the Catholic youth in Belgium. When the Belgian press denounced the conduct of the Dutch Government, the writers were fined, imprisoned, or banished from the country. The alliance of the Belgian Liberal party with the Catholic Ultramontane party was designated by the Dutch king, in his speech from the throne, as "infamous."

**The union of
Holland and
Belgium.**

51. Thinking the opportunity favorable, and encouraged by the success of the Paris Revolution of July, the people of Brussels rose in insurrection, on the 25th of August, 1830, and, after an obstinate struggle of four days, expelled the Dutch authorities and garrison from the city. The movement spread rapidly, and in a short time, the whole of Belgium was in revolt against the authority of the King of Holland. The Dutch were repulsed in an attack upon Brussels, and the Belgian insurgents proceeded against Antwerp, to drive the Dutch from that city. Thereupon the Dutch general Chassé retired into the citadel with his troops, and cannonaded the town for several hours, thus destroying an immense amount of valuable property. This proceeding caused much exasperation in Belgium; and, on the 14th of October (1830) the Belgian National Congress declared the independence of Belgium, and the exclusion of the House of Orange from the Belgian throne.

**Insurrection
of Brussels.**

52. While the war between the Dutch and the Belgi-

ans was in progress, the representatives of the five great powers—Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia—held a conference in London, where, after long diplomatic negotiation, it was determined to separate Belgium from Holland.

**European
conference
in London.**

53. Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a relative of the English royal family, and who was shortly afterwards married to a daughter of Louis Philippe, King of the French, received the crown of Belgium, with the title of "Leopold I., King of the Belgians."

**Prince Leo-
pold of Saxe-
Coburg.**

The King of Holland vainly attempted to subdue the Belgians, who were now aided by England and France. On the 24th of December, 1832, the Dutch army which had held possession of Antwerp was compelled to surrender to the French army under Marshal Gerard. Leopold granted his subjects a liberal constitution, and the separation of the Church from the State. Since her separation from Holland, Belgium has prospered wonderfully in every branch of industry and social improvement.

54. The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, erected Poland into a kingdom, with a Diet and a constitution of its own; but the sovereign power of the kingdom was vested in the Czar of Russia, under the title of "King of Poland."

**The Kingdom
of Poland.**

The Poles were soon dissappointed in the hopes which they had entertained that the Emperor Alexander would protect them in the enjoyment of the rights and privileges granted them by the new constitution. Before long, the principal offices in Poland were filled with Russians; the article of the new constitution granting freedom of the press was annulled; and publicity of debate in the Polish Diet was abolished. On the death of the Emperor Alexander I., in 1825, and the accession of his brother Nicholas to the throne of Russia, the nominal administration of affairs in Poland was intrusted to a Pole; but all the real power

was invested in the Archduke Constantine, the brother of the emperor-king. Constantine was an unscrupulous tyrant. His despotic and cruel course revived the old spirit of Polish freedom and nationality; and the successful revolutions in France and Belgium, in 1830, urged the Poles to a rebellion against the Russian power. Secret organizations were formed, whose object was to bring about the restoration of Polish independence, and the reunion, under one government, of those portions of Poland which had been absorbed by Austria, Russia, and Prussia.

55. On the evening of the 29th of November, 1830, the students of the cadet School, at Warsaw, attempted to seize Constantine, while another party summoned the people to arms. Constantine escaped from Poland, after a severe conflict, in which several hundred of his guards were killed. The insurgents forced the arsenal at Warsaw, and before the close of the day, 40,000 men were in arms. The insurgent Poles established a provisional government, with Adam Czartoryski, General Chlopiki, and others, at its head; and great enthusiasm prevailed in the Polish capital.

**Insurrection
at Warsaw**

56. The provisional government at Warsaw appointed Chlopiki dictator, and the Polish Diet, which was hastily assembled, invested Prince Radzivil with absolute power; but the Polish aristocracy, alarmed at the violence of the republican and democratic clubs at Warsaw, opposed every attempt to excite a popular war. The Diet pronounced the deposition of the princely House of Romanoff in Poland; and, on the 5th of February, 1831, after two months of unsuccessful attempts at negotiation, the Czar Nicholas rejecting all terms but unconditional submission on the part of the Poles, a Russian army of 200,000 men, under the command of Field-Marshal Diebitsch, appeared in Poland. An indecisive action occurred on the 5th (February, 1831); and on

**Russian in-
vasion of
Poland.**

the 25th, a desperate engagement occurred between 40,000 Poles, under Prince Radzivil, and 100,000 Russians and when the shades of night closed the combat, the dead bodies of 10,000 Russians covered the sanguinary field. On the night of the 31st of March (1831) the Polish army, under General Skrzynecki, fought and routed 20,000 Russians. The Poles rapidly followed up their advantages, and before the close of April, the Russian forces were driven out of Poland.

57. After concentrating his forces at Minsk, Skrzynecki crossed the Bug, and advanced to Ostrolenka, where his army, led by General Bem, encountered an

**Battle of
Ostrolenka.**

army of 60,000 Russians, on the 26th of May.

The carnage was frightful. No quarter was given by either party. The Poles were defeated with the loss of 5000 men. The victorious Russians also lost heavily, and three of their generals were among the slain.

58. Owing to the dissensions among the Polish leaders, the insurrection rapidly declined in strength after the battle of Ostrolenka. In June, both Field-

**Dissensions
among the
Poles.**

Marshal Diebitsch and the Archduke Constantine met with sudden deaths. The popu-

lace of Warsaw ascribed the failure of the revolution to treachery on the part of the aristocracy, thirty of whom were sacrificed to the popular fury. The Polish dictator, Czartoryski, the successor of Chlopiki, fled in terror to General Dembinski's camp, whereupon the Polish Diet invested Krukowiecki with the supreme power.

59. At length, a Russian army of 100,000 men, under the command of General Paskiewitsch, advanced on Warsaw. At Wola, the ancient place of the

**Fall of War-
saw**

election of the Polish kings, the attacks of the Russians were repulsed. On the 6th of

September, 1831, after two days of furious assaults, during

which 20,000 Russians and 10,000 Poles laid down their lives, the cowardly dictator, Krukowiecki, surrendered Warsaw and Praga to Paskiewitsch. The main body of the Polish army retreated from Warsaw, and soon afterward dispersed.

60. The fall of Warsaw was the death-blow to the insurrection, and unfortunate Poland again groaned under the iron heel of Russian despotism. Many of the Polish insurgents retired into voluntary **Submission of Poland.** exile in foreign lands; and thousands of those who remained and fell into the hands of the Russians, including generals, soldiers, and nobles, were consigned to the dungeons and mines of Siberia.

61. Poland was deprived of her Constitution, her Diet, and her State Council, by the "Organic Statute," and incorporated with the Russian Empire, with **Incorporation of Poland with the Russian Empire.** a separate government and administration of justice; and Polish nationality and independence seemed extinguished.

62. The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, united the Germanic states into one league entitled "The Germanic Confederation." The German portions of the great Austrian and Prussian monarchies were **The Germanic Confederation.** embraced in this confederation. The affairs of the confederation were managed by a Diet composed of representatives of the states of Germany. In this Diet the representative of Austria presided. The Paris revolution of July also occasioned some revolutionary movements in Germany. The insurrections which took place in Hanover, Saxony, and Hesse-Cassel, in 1831, resulted in the establishment of liberal constitutions in those states. In Brunswick, the constitution was improved, after the expulsion of the despotic Duke Charles, and the assumption of the government of the Duchy by his brother.

63. The success of the July Revolution of Paris roused the liberals in Italy to action, but their efforts resulted

**Insurrections
in Italy sup-
pressed by
the Austrians
—French
Coup de
Main.**

in defeat. Insurrections which broke out in Bologna, Parma, and Modena, were suppressed by Austrian troops, and the regents who had been expelled from the latter two states were restored to their governments. In the Papal States, the bandits and convicts who were employed in keeping down the revolutionists, conducted themselves in so shameful a manner, that the Austrian troops marched into that section to protect the country against its own soldiers. To prevent the Austrians from establishing their own supremacy in the Papal territory, the French, by a "*coup de main*," seized upon Ancona, which they held for several years. A band of refugees, under the Polish general Ramorino, made an unsuccessful attempt upon Sardinia from Switzerland, with the view of exciting all Italy to revolution.

64. King George III., who during the last ten years of his life was an imbecile, died in January, 1820, after a reign of sixty years,—the longest reign in the annals of England,—and left his crown to his profligate son, George IV., who had acted as Prince Regent during his father's imbecility. During the whole of the reign of George IV., the British nation was agitated by the question of reform in the representation in Parliament. The then-nominal disabilities imposed upon Non-conformists, were removed by the abolition of the Test Act by Parliament, in 1828. The Catholic Emancipation Act, which allowed Roman Catholics to sit in Parliament, was passed in 1829.

65. King George IV. died in June, 1830; and his brother, the Duke of Clarence, succeeded to the throne of Great Britain, with the title of William IV. On the accession of William IV. the British Government was in the hands of the Tory party, with the great Duke of Wellington as Prime-Minister. As public sentiment in Great Britain was in

**Reign of
George IV.**

**Accession of
William IV.
The Grey
Ministry.**

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favor of reform in the constitution of Parliament the Tory Ministry of Lord Wellington was obliged to resign, the same year, and a Whig Ministry, under Lord Grey, came into power.

On the 1st of March, 1831, Lord John Russell presented a measure of reform in Parliament. After some stormy debates, the bill passed the House of Commons on a second reading, but was lost on a third reading. The Ministry then dissolved Parliament, and ordered new elections to better ascertain the sense of the nation. The result of the elections was that the friends of reform were returned to seats in Parliament by all the large constituencies.

**Defeat of
Lord John
Russell's
Reform Bill.**

The new Parliament was opened on the 14th of June, 1831. The reform bill was passed by the House of Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords. The consequences of this action of the House of Lords were great riots in London, Nottingham, Derby, and Bristol. In Bristol, much property was destroyed, and many lives were sacrificed; but the chief rioters were arrested, tried, convicted, and executed.

**First Rejection of the
Reform Bill
by the House
of Lords.**

68. Lord John Russell again brought forward a reform bill in Parliament, on the 12th of December, 1831. The bill passed the House of Commons, on the 23d of March, 1832, but was again defeated in the House of Lords. On the refusal of the king to create a number of peers sufficient to secure the passage of the measure, the Ministry of Earl Grey resigned. The people formed political unions, refused payment of taxes, and demanded the reinstatement of Earl Grey's Cabinet. The king accordingly reinstated Earl Grey's Ministry, and created enough new peers to insure the passage of the Reform Bill through the House of Lords.

**Second rejection of the
Reform Bill
by the Lords.**

69. The Lords who were opposed to the Reform Bill,

left their seats in Parliament when the measure was ag-
 introduced. The bill was passed by
 both Houses, and received the royal assent on
 the 7th of June, 1832. By this bloodless
 revolution and triumph of the cause of popular freedom,
 the right of suffrage was extended to half a million addi-
 tional voters; and the middle classes of English society
 were invested with supreme political power in the British
 Empire. In 1833, Parliament passed an act abolishing
 slavery in the British West-India Islands.

70. In June, 1837, King William IV. died, and was
 succeeded on the British throne by his niece, Alexandra
 Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, and
 grand-daughter of George III. One result
 of the accession of a female to the throne of
 Great Britain was the separation of the
 crowns of England and Hanover, after a union of more
 than a century. The Salic Law prevailing in Hanover,
 the Duke of Cumberland, Queen Victoria's uncle, ascend-
 ed the throne of that German kingdom in February,
 1840, her majesty, Queen Victoria, was married to a Ger-
 man prince, Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. Since the
 accession of Queen Victoria, the British Empire has en-
 joyed unrivalled prosperity.

King Ferdinand VII. of Spain, during whose reign
 the Spanish American colonies erected themselves into
 independent republics, after a long and bloody
 struggle with the mother country, ruled in
 the most despotic manner, suppressing every
 germ of constitutional freedom. For the purpose of se-
 curing the succession to the Spanish throne to his daugh-
 ter Isabella, to the exclusion of his younger brother, Don
 Carlos, Ferdinand VII., abolished the Salic Law, which
 had prevailed in all Bourbon kingdoms.

72. When Ferdinand VII. died, in 1833, and his
 daughter, Isabella II., succeeded to the throne of Spain,

Passage of
 the Reform
 Bill.

Accession of
 Queen Vic-
 toria—Vic-
 toria's Mar-
 riage.

Tyranny of
 King Fer-
 dinand VII.

the Carlists, as the adherents of Don Carlos were called, who were numerous in the North of Spain, took up arms, and involved the Spanish kingdom in civil war. For the purpose of securing the liberal party in Spain to the support of the young queen, the queen-mother, Maria Christina, who acted as regent during her daughter's minority, restored the Cortes Constitution of 1812.

Civil War in Spain.

73. The friends of absolute monarchy sided with Don Carlos. Many bloody battles were fought; and the queen-mother received aid from England and France. After the civil war had lasted six years, and about 300,000 lives had been sacrificed, the Carlists were subdued. In August, 1840, General Espartero compelled the Carlist general Maroto to lay down his arms by capitulation; and thus brought about the general pacification of the Spanish kingdom.

Defeat of the Carlism.

74. General Espartero quarrelled with the queen-mother soon after the close of the civil war, and after removing her from the regency, in 1841, he obtained control of the Government; but was overthrown in 1843, by General Narvaez, and obliged to seek refuge in England, whereupon the queen-mother recovered her lost authority. In 1853 a rebellion broke out in Spain in consequence of the despotic measures of the Government; and in 1854 an insurrection in Madrid compelled the queen-mother to flee, whereupon a provisional government under Espartero was formed; but Queen Isabella II. afterwards secured control of the Government.

Espartero and the Queen-Mother.

75. Mehemet Ali, who became Pacha of Egypt in 1805, and who fully established his power by his treacherous massacre of the Mameluke chiefs in 1811, did much for the advancement and prosperity of Egypt. In 1818 Mehemet Ali subdued the

Mehemet Ali, Pacha of Egypt.

Wahabees, a Mohammedan sect in Arabia; in 1819 and 1820 he conquered Nubia, Sennaar, Kordofan, and Dongola; and in 1824 he sent his son, Ibrahim Pacha, with an army to aid the Sultan, his master, in suppressing the Greek Revolution.

76. In 1831 Mehemet Ali rebelled against his master, the Sultan of Turkey; and his son, Ibrahim Pacha, invaded Syria, took Acre by siege, and marched in a rapid course of victories toward Constantinople; and the Ottoman Empire was only saved from destruction by the timely intervention of the Czar Nicholas of Russia in behalf of the Sultan, in 1831.

Mehemet Ali's first rebellion against the Sultan.

77. In 1839 Mehemet Ali again took up arms against the Sultan. Ibrahim Pacha again invaded Syria and defeated the Ottoman forces; but England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia came to the Sultan's rescue. The British navy bombarded and took Beyrout and Acre; and in 1841 the rebellious Pacha of Egypt was forced to accept a peace which left the important province of Syria in the possession of the Sultan.

Mehemet Ali's second rebellion.

78. The seizure and destruction, by the Chinese authorities, of large quantities of opium smuggled into Chinese cities by British merchants, led to a war between England and China, at the close of 1839. The Chinese were thoroughly humbled; their great cities, Amoy, Canton, and Ningpo, were taken; and by the treaty of Nankin, on the 29th of August, 1842, China was required to pay to England twenty-one million pounds sterling for the expenses of the war; to cede the island of Hong-Kong to Great Britain; and to open five of her principal ports to the commerce of Christendom.

England's opium war with China.

79. The British Empire in India has been greatly enlarged during the present century. The English East-

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India Company acquired additional territories by a successful war against the Burmese, in 1824 and 1825; and in 1839, under the erroneous impression that Russia intended to attack England's Indian Empire, an Anglo-Indian army was marched into Afghanistan. The invading army took Candahar, entered Cabul, the Afghan capital, deposed Dost Mohammed, the reigning Afghan sovereign, and raised Shah Soojah to the Afghan throne. On the 2d of November, 1841, a fierce rebellion, headed by Akbar Khan, son of the deposed Dost Mohammed, broke out at Cabul. The British ministers and many of the military commanders were put to death. Shah Soojah was dethroned, and Dost Mohammed was raised to the Afghan throne. Finding themselves in the midst of a hostile people, the English made a disastrous retreat. The British troops and camp-followers, women and children, numbering 26,000 persons, were nearly all killed or made captives. In the following year (1842), an Anglo-Indian army, under General Pollock, marched into Afghanistan, gained some victories, and then retired.

**The Afghan-
istan war.**

80. The treacherous conduct of the Ameers of Scinde toward the English, brought an Anglo-Indian army, under Sir Charles Napier, into their territory. The forces of the Ameers were badly defeated in the bloody battle of Hyderabad; and the result of a short but sharp contest was the annexation of their territory, Scinde, to the British Empire in India.

**War with the
Ameers of
Scinde.**

81. During the year 1843, the Mahrattas, who had also taken up arms against the English, were defeated in the battles of Maharajpore and Punniar, and their territory, Gwalior, was annexed to the English-Indian territories.

**Mahratta
War.**

82. In 1844, the Sikhs in the Punjab began a war against the East-India Company. The English defeated

First Sikh war.

the Sikhs in the bloody battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sohraon. In the battle of Sohraon, the Sikhs lost 10,000 men killed and wounded, and the English over 2,000 men. Peace was made in December, 1846.

Second Sikh war.

88. Another war broke out between the English and the Sikhs in 1848. The Sikhs were defeated in the battles of Chenah, Chillianwallah, and Gujrat, in consequence of which their territory, the Punjab, was annexed to the British-Indian Empire, in 1849.

CHAPTER CX.

EUROPEAN REVOLUTIONS OF 1848-49.

FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1848.

Peaceful reign of Louis Philippe.

1. UNDER Louis Philippe, the Citizen-King, the French nation prospered, and, with the exception of the seventeen years' war with the Arab tribes of Algiers, remained at peace with all the world. Insurrections which broke out in Paris and Lyons, in the early part of this reign, were easily suppressed. In October, 1836, Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the great Emperor Napoleon I., attempted to raise an insurrection at Strasburg, to overthrow the government of Louis Philippe. In August, 1840, Louis Napoleon landed at Boulogne, and made another attempt to excite an insurrection in France, but he was seized and imprisoned for several years. In 1840, the remains of the great Napoleon were brought from St. Helena to Paris, and placed in the Hotel des Invalides. By the surrender of the indefatigable Arab chieftain, Abdel-Kader, in 1847, the conquest of Algiers by the French was accomplished.

2. Louis Philippe received his main support from the bourgeoisie, or middle class, and was opposed by the Ul-

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tra-Republicans, and also by the Legitimists, or adherents of the elder branch of the Bourbons. As Louis Philippe grew old, he became ambitious, and set about schemes for the aggrandizement of his family, and the establishment of a dynasty founded upon the principles of the ancient despotism. He practically ignored the constitutional charter by corrupting both branches of the French legislature. With wonderful good fortune, Louis Philippe escaped eight attempts at assassination; that by means of the "infernal machine," contrived by the Corsican Fieschi, resulting in the death of forty-two persons near the king.

**Character of
Louis
Philippe's
Government.**

8. In 1840, the Ministry of M. Thiers gave place to a new Cabinet, at the head of which was M. Guizot. The government of M. Guizot was characterized by pride, tyranny, and a series of encroachments on the liberties of the French people. The efforts of M. Guizot were directed chiefly to the strengthening of the royal prerogative. Guizot persevered in his despotic policy, until the latent fires of popular disaffection broke forth in the Paris Revolution of February, 1848, which cost Louis Philippe his throne.

**The Ministry
of M. Guizot.**

4. During the latter part of 1847, and in the beginning of 1848, numerous reform banquets were held in different parts of France. Arrangements were made for the holding of one in one of the arrondissements of Paris, on the 22d of February, 1848, Washington's birth-day; but the Ministry issued a proclamation forbidding it, and made preparations to suppress it by military force if it were attempted. The Chambers of Deputies, then in session, warmly discussed the arbitrary measures of the Government, and the opposition members resolved upon the impeachment of the Ministers.

**Reform ban-
quets forbid-
den by the
Government.**

5. The reform banquet arranged for the 22d of

February, 1848, was not held; but, on the morning of that day, large crowds collected in Paris, blocked up the avenues leading to the legislative Chambers, and made offensive demonstrations before the house of M. Guizot.

**Commence-
ment of the
Revolution,
February
22d, 1848.**

About noon, a large crowd assembled in front of the Church of the Madeleine, but were easily dispersed by the troops. In the evening, disturbances began in the French capital: gunsmiths' shops were broken open; lamps were extinguished; barricades were erected; guards were attacked; and the streets were filled with soldiers. In the Chambers, Odillon Barrot moved an impeachment of the Prime-Minister.

6. On the morning of February 23d, the streets of Paris were filled with large crowds of people, barricades were erected, and some fighting occurred between the people and the troops, in which several persons were killed. In obedience to the request of the National Guards, who, fraternized with the people, the king dismissed the Ministry of M. Guizot, and called on Count Mole to form a new Cabinet. This action of the king produced a lull; but the wanton discharge of musketry upon a large crowd, by the guards assembled before M. Guizot's hotel, by which fifty-two persons were killed and wounded, again excited the fury of the populace, who paraded through the streets with a bier covered with dead bodies, crying "To arms!" "Down with the assassins!" "Down with Louis Philippe!" "Down with the Bourbons!"

7. On the morning of February 24th, the whole city of Paris was in possession of the people. At the Chateau d'Eau, a large stone building in front of the Palais Royal, a severe fight occurred between the people and the municipal guards, and the chateau was demolished by fire. The mob

then marched to the Tuileries, and demanded the abdica-

**February 24.
Abdication
of Louis
Philippe.**

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tion of the king. Louis Philippe signed an abdication in favor of his grandson, the young Count of Paris, but the Chambers would not accept the young prince, and Louis Philippe and his family fled to Neuilly, from which place they made their escape to England. The royal furniture was thrown out of the windows of the Tuileries and burned, the wines in the royal cellars were distributed among the multitude, the throne was carried through the streets, and finally burned on the Place de la Bastille, and the royal carriages were burned at the Chateau d'Eau. Overwhelmed by the mob, and amid the greatest confusion and shouts of "Vive la Republique!" the sturdy republican, Dupont de l'Eure, was carried to the chair in the Chamber of Deputies, where a Provisional Government was proclaimed, consisting of the following persons: M. Lamartine, Emanuel Arago, Ledru Rollin, Garnier Pages, Dupont de l'Eure, Lamoriciere, Cavaignac, and Decoutrias. The Provisional Government was installed at the Hotel de Ville, and proclaimed The Second French Republic. The Chamber of Peers was immediately abolished. The poet, M. Lamartine, was the master-spirit of the new government. Every citizen of France was made an elector, and twenty-five years of age constituted eligibility for office; the penalty of death for political offences was immediately abolished; and all slaves on territory subject to France were declared free.

8. On the 4th of March, 1848, the victims of the Revolution of February were solemnly interred, in the presence of nearly half a million of people, at the foot of a monument erected to the memory of the victims of the Revolution of July,

**Deaths of
France's new
rulers.**

1830. France's new rulers directed their first efforts for the reëstablishment of order; and many grievances of which the people complained were removed. Fetes, parades, and illuminations were given daily for the public amusement. But the spirit of anarchy and restlessness

was now rife for another insurrection. As the Revolution had been the work of the laboring classes, efforts were now taken by the Provisional Government to better their condition. National workshops were established in Paris, where the idle could find employment.

9. The Moderate and Red Republicans had united to overturn the throne of Louis Philippe, but no sooner had the Republic been proclaimed than the animosity between those two parties broke forth anew; and when the Reds perceived that the control of public affairs was in the hands of the Moderate party, they began to conspire for another revolution. The first open opposition to the Provisional Government was made on the 16th of April (1848), the object of the movement being the overthrow of the Provisional Government, and the establishment of a Committee of Safety for the direction of public affairs. This movement, and a rising of the various clubs of Paris, were easily suppressed. Bloody riots occurred on the 23d and 24th of April (1848), the days for the election of members for a permanent National Assembly.

10. The election throughout France resulted in large majorities for the Moderate Republicans; and on the 5th of May (1848), the newly-elected National Assembly met in Paris, and organized with the election of M. Buchez as president. On the following day (May 6, 1848), the members of the Provisional Government submitted their reports to the National Assembly and resigned their powers. On the 10th, the National Assembly appointed M. Emanuel Arago, Garnier Pages, M. Marie, M. Lamartine, and Ledru Rollin, an executive committee to act in place of the Provincial Government.

11. On the 15th of May 1848, an immense mob assembled in the streets of Paris, proceeded to the hall of the National Assembly, drove out the members,

**Attempted
revolution-
ary risings.**

**A French
National
Assembly.**

and proclaimed Socialism and Communism, the imposition of taxes upon the rich for the benefit of the poor, and the restoration of the guillotine. The mob also declared that France should send an army to Poland to drive the Russian troops from that country, and a heavy tax was levied on the rich to carry on the war for Poland. The mob also appointed an executive government composed of the Communist leaders, M. Barbes, Blanqui, Flocon, Cabet, Albert, Raspail, and Louis Blanc. This movement would doubtless have resulted in the most serious consequences, had not the National Guard declared for the National Assembly, dispersed the mob at the point of the bayonet, and restored order. The Communist leaders, Blanqui, Barbes, Raspail, Sobrier, and Albert, were arrested and imprisoned.

12. The insurrection of May 15th was only a prelude to the great Communist Rebellion of June. Fearing another demonstration on an extensive scale, the Government made the necessary preparations to meet it. Finding the burdens imposed upon the national treasury too heavy to be borne, the Government, in June, resolved upon the discharge of the immense army of workmen, more than 100,000 in number, uselessly employed in Paris at the public expense. This alarmed the workmen, who immediately organized for another desperate struggle, for the purpose of bringing about the realization in practice of the absurd theory of Communism and Socialism, — a community of goods and manners. The party of law and order, which controlled the National Assembly, were resolved upon the complete annihilation of the Communist faction in the event of another appeal to arms. On the 22d of June (1848), a deputation of five delegates, appointed by the workmen, called on M. Marie, the Prime Minister of the Republic. After a short conference, the deputation returned to the workmen, assuring them that

The Great
communist
rebellion of
June.

they had nothing to expect from the Government. This was the signal for riotous demonstrations. Large crowds collected, in the evening, at the Hotel de Ville, the Place de la Bastille, and other important points, crying for the downfall of the Republic, and the elevation of Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte to the throne of France. On the following morning, June 23d, it was found that the rioters had made considerable progress, and thrown up barricades in various portions of the city. The principal insurgent barricades were in the Rue St. Denis, Rue du Faubourg St. Denis, Rue Villeneuve Bourbon, Rue de Clery, and near the Porte St. Denis and the Porte St. Martin. The Government appointed General Cavaignac, then Minister of War, commander-in-chief of all the troops in Paris. The barricades near the Porte St. Denis were carried at the point of the bayonet. The insurgents there were aided by boys, and even by women, who appeared on the barricades, waving flags and other emblems. On the 24th, the National Assembly declared Paris in a state of siege, and appointed General Cavaignac dictator. A heavy musketry and artillery fire continued during the greater part of the day, and before evening, the rebellion was suppressed on the left bank of the Seine, but a sanguinary struggle took place at the Clos St. Lazare, on the right bank. The conflict raged with great fury during the 25th. The Government troops numbered 300,000 men, and the insurgents 120,000. A terrible struggle raged at the Pantheon, where the rebel barricades were captured, after frightful carnage. In the evening of this day, occurred one of the saddest events in this unhappy civil war. Monseigneur Affre, Archbishop of Paris, appeared at the Place de la Bastille, for the laudable purpose of bringing about a pacification. On the appearance of the noble prelate, both parties, for a while, ceased firing, but suddenly recommenced, and the venerable Archbishop received a mortal wound, and expired on the morning of the 27th.

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On the morning of the 26th, the struggle was renewed with terrible fierceness, the principal scenes of action being the Faubourg St. Antoine, the Place Maubert, and the vicinity of the Pantheon. At noon, the insurgents at the Faubourg St. Antoine surrendered, but the other places were stormed, and the insurgent garrisons of each were killed or captured. The insurgent barricade at the corner of the Rue de la Roquette was attacked by the Government troops, under General Lamoriciere, after having carried all the rebel barricades in the Faubourg du Temple. From the Place de la Bastille, Lamoriciere's troops bombarded and cannonaded the insurgent works, when the falling of shells on some of the adjoining houses, several of which were set on fire, so frightened the insurgents that they fled out of the city. Thus ended the great Rebellion of the Paris Communists, in June, 1848. Never before had Paris witnessed such slaughter as during these four sanguinary days. The number of killed and wounded is not definitely known, but 25,000 is not probably a very high estimate. One-fourth of the city was ruined. Several days were occupied in burying the dead, and in repairing the damage inflicted on the city. On the 29th (June, 1848), General Cavaignac resigned his dictatorship into the hands of the National Assembly, and that body then appointed him Chief-Executive of France.

13. On the 4th of November, 1848, the French National Assembly, by a vote of 739 in favor, and 30 in opposition, adopted a Constitution, giving France a republican form of government, with one **A New Constitution.** Legislative Assembly, and vesting the executive power in a President, to be elected by universal suffrage, for a term of four years. The candidates for the Presidency were General Cavaignac, General Changarnier, M. Lamartine, Raspail, Ledru Rollin, Louis Blanc, and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte. To the surprise of all, the Presidential election resulted in the choice of

Louis Napoleon, by a clear majority of 3,556,400 against all the other candidates combined. The President elect was sworn into office on the 20th of December, 1848, in the presence of the Assembly, by M. Marrast, President of of that body.

14. The Revolution of February, 1848, in Paris, was the signal for general popular risings in Germany, Italy, and Hungary, which countries had long been disturbed by political and social agitation; and concessions which had been vainly demanded for thirty years by the Liberal party in Germany, were now extorted from every German ruler within three weeks.

15. On the 29th of February, 1848, deputations from every town in the Grand-Duchy of Baden demanded of the Grand-Duke freedom of the press, trial by jury, the right of the people to bear arms and to meet in public, and a popular legislative assembly for all Germany, by the side of the Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main. On the 2d of March, the Grand-Duke yielded to all these demands, appointed a Ministry from the Liberal party, and adopted other conciliatory measures. Popular movements of a similar character took place in other parts of Germany. King Louis of Bavaria, after being forced to grant to his subjects the reforms which they had demanded, abdicated his throne in favor of the Crown-Prince Maximilian. The Kings of Hanover, Saxony, and Wurtemberg, granted to their subjects the concessions which they had demanded. In Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and other German States, the leaders of the popular party were called to the Ministry, and many beneficent reforms were introduced; but the popular movement assumed such formidable proportions that insurrection and revolution were entered upon in many portions of Germany. In many localities, the peasants drove away the stewards, and de-

Consequences of the Paris Revolution of February.

Popular movements in Baden, Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, and Wurtemberg.

stroyed the land and the registers, and tithe seats of the landlords.

16. When the Diet of Lower Austria was opened at Vienna, on the 18th of March, 1848, a large concourse of people, headed by the students of the University, proceeded to the hall in which the Diet assembled, and demanded a constitution, liberty of the press, a National Guard, trial by jury, and religious liberty. The order for the people to disperse not being obeyed, the Archduke Albert ordered the troops to fire into the crowd. A great number were killed and wounded, and the exasperation of the excited populace obliged the Austrian Emperor to order the soldiers to withdraw. The arsenal was opened to the people by the city guards, who declared for the popular cause. The Ministry of Prince Metternich, was overthrown, and in a few days the Emperor Ferdinand yielded to all the demands of the people. Lawlessness soon prevailed in the Austrian capital, and the result of the liberty of the press was a disgraceful daily literature. Riots and insurrections were of frequent occurrence. On the 18th of May, the Emperor and his court retired to Innsbruck, in the Tyrol, but, at the request of the people, he returned to the capital in August, when the students and the democratic clubs ruled Vienna in the most despotic manner.

**The Vienna
Revolution
of March.**

17. On the 17th of March, 1848, the King of Prussia granted freedom of the press, but the people of Berlin also demanded the withdrawal of the soldiers from the capital, and the formation of a National Guard. Crowds assembled in the streets, in front of the royal palace, where, on the 18th of March, a terrible conflict commenced, and only terminated on the afternoon of the 19th, after having raged for fourteen hours. The barricades which had been erected by the people were removed by the troops, who were then ordered

**The March
revolution
of Berlin.**

by the king to withdraw. The Ministry was dismissed, a militia and guard for the place were formed, and an unconditional amnesty was granted by the king, Frederic William IV., who now placed himself at the head of the popular movement in Germany. A few weeks later, a constituent National Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, undertook the task of framing a representative constitution for the Prussian kingdom.

18. When, in consequence of the Paris February Revolution, a powerful movement was communicated to the other European States, the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which were under the government of the King of Denmark, resolved to assert their independence by force of arms. The Duchies established a provisional government, and, on the 26th of March, 1848, declared their independence of the King of Denmark. A bloody war ensued between the King of Denmark and the Duchies. The Schleswig-Holsteiners were aided by Prussian and other German volunteers, and the Danes were driven from Schleswig. The threatening attitude assumed by England and Russia, in consequence of the distressing effect of this war upon the maritime trade of Northern Europe, induced Prussia to conclude the Truce of Malmo with the King of Denmark, and hostilities were for some time suspended.

19. In the beginning of April (1848) the German Parliament assembled by its own authority, in the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main. This Parliament laid down the principle of popular sovereignty, and prepared the way for the convocation of a freely-elected National Assembly, which should be charged with the task of framing a constitution for a free and united Germany.

20. A party headed by Hecker, Struve, and others,

was striving for a German republic; and a republican insurrection broke out in Baden, but, the movement was speedily crushed, and the leaders were obliged to flee.

**Republican
Insurrection
in Baden.**

21. On the 18th of May, 1848, the German National Assembly, which was chosen to frame a constitution for the German nation, convened in the Church of St. Paul, in Frankfort-on-the-Main. The Assembly immediately set aside the Diet, and established a new central power, and resolved upon the choice of an irresponsible regent, who was to surround himself with a responsible ministry.

**The German
National As-
sembly.**

22. The Bohemians, a Slavie race, had applied to the Emperor of Austria for a constitution which would render their relations with the Austrian Empire the same as those of the Hungarians. Representatives from all the Slavie nations of the Empire assembled in a Congress at Prague, in June, 1848. During the session of this Congress, the people of Prague demanded of Prince Windischgratz the removal of the troops from the city, and the furnishing of arms to the people; and when this demand was not complied with, the people rose in insurrection. After dreadful fighting in the streets of Prague, for a whole week, during which the city was also bombarded from the neighboring heights, the city surrendered to the Prince Windischgratz, on the 17th of June. The Slavie Congress was broken up, and the insurrection was quelled.

**Slavie In-
surrection in
Prague.**

23. On the 29th June, 1848, the Archduke John of Austria was chosen Regent of Germany, by the National Assembly, at Frankfort-on-the-Main; and, on the 11th of July, he received from the hands of the president of the Federal Diet, the power exercised by that body.

**Archduke
John of Aus-
tria chosen
Regent of
Germany.**

24. On the 18th of September, 1848, a revolutionary rising occurred at Frankfort-on-the-Main, the object of

**Republican
insurrection
at Frankfurt-
on-the-Main.**

which was to disperse the German National Assembly, and to bring about the establishment of a German republic. After a bloody street-fight, the insurrection was crushed by the Federal troops; but two members of the National Assembly, Auerswald and Lichnowsky, were murdered by the mob in the Bornheimer wood.

25. The Croats and other Slavonic races of Hungary had taken up arms against the Magyars, and were supported in their revolt by the Austrian Government. The Magyars were highly incensed at the course of the Imperial Government;

**The October
revolution
of Vienna.**

and, on the 3d of October, 1848, the imperial commissioner, Lamberg, was murdered by an enraged mob, on the bridge of Buda-Pesth. The Austrian troops were immediately ordered to march into Hungary; but the democrats of Vienna, who were in sympathy with the Magyars, excited another revolution in the Austrian capital. Count Latour, Minister of War, was murdered by the excited mob, and the Ministry was overthrown. (October 6, 1848.) The Emperor of Austria fled to Olmutz, in Moravia; and at his command, Prince Windischgratz marched against the rebellious capital. After besieging Vienna for three weeks, the imperial army, under Windischgratz, opened a furious assault on the city, on the 29th of October; and, after a heroic defence, the city surrendered on the 31st. The conquered capital was placed under martial law; and several of the revolutionary leaders, among whom was Robert Blum, a member of the German National Assembly, were punished with death. The Imperial Government then adopted a conciliatory course; and, on the 2d of December, 1848, the Emperor Ferdinand abdicated the throne, and was succeeded by his nephew, Francis Joseph.

26. For some time, the popular unions ruled in Berlin; and noisy rioters, excited by public orators, and by

placards on the walls, constantly surrounded the Prussian constituent National Assembly, and exercised an influence upon the deliberations of that body by intimidation. The King of Prussia resolved to put an end to such proceedings, and the new Ministry of Count Brandenburg adjourned the sitting of the Assembly to the town of Brandenburg. Some of the members continued their sittings in Berlin, but were soon driven out by the troops; and when the Assembly declared the levying of taxes illegal it was dissolved. At the same time the Prussian Government proclaimed a liberal constitution which was to be submitted for ratification to a new elective assembly with two chambers.

**Dissolution
of the Prussian
National
Assembly.**

27. In March, 1849, the German Constituent National Assembly adopted a constitution which united the German States into a confederacy, with an hereditary emperor, and a legislative assembly consisting of two branches, one of which should be composed of representatives of the Government, and the other of deputies chosen by the German people. The Assembly, by a large vote, offered the dignity of "Emperor of Germany" to the King of Prussia, upon condition of his accepting the new imperial constitution in all its details; but Frederic William IV. rejected the new constitution and the imperial dignity. When the Prussian Assembly of Estates recommended the acceptance of the constitution and the imperial dignity by the king, as the desire of the German people, the first chamber was prorogued, and the second dissolved; and the elective law was so changed that the right of universal suffrage was to give place to an election arranged upon the three taxpaying classes.

**Rejection of
the new Imperial
Constitution.**

28. The consequences of the Prussian king's rejection of the imperial constitution were fresh commotions in various parts of Germany; and formidable insurrections and bloody street-fights occurred in Saxony, Rhenish Bavaria, and Rhenish

**Revolutionary risings
in Germany.**

Prussia. The Republican party was gradually gaining power in the German National Assembly; but the revolutionary movement in Germany was speedily suppressed by the Prussian army. Prussian troops crushed the popular risings in Elberfeld, Dusseldorf, and other places; and after a barricade street-fight of six days in Dresden, Prussian troops restored the authority of the King of Saxony.

29. A mutiny of the garrison in the fortress of Rastadt, and an insurrection at Carlsruhe, compelled the

**Republican
insurrection
in Baden.**

Grand-Duke of Baden to take flight, whereupon the control of public affairs in the Grand Duchy came into the hands of the democrats and republicans. At the Grand-Duke's call for assistance, Prussian troops marched into Baden; and, after several engagements, in which the insurgent troops under the Polish adventurer, Mierolawski, were defeated, the insurrection was thoroughly crushed, and the Grand Duke's authority was fully restored. Some of the revolutionary leaders were shot, but others saved themselves by fleeing into republican countries. In the meantime, the German National Assembly, which was now entirely controlled by the republicans, the conservative members having resigned their seats, had removed its sittings to Stuttgart, in the kingdom of Wurtemberg, but the Wurtemberg Government soon forced the members to leave the kingdom.

30. Hostilities between the King of Denmark and the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein broke out afresh in

**Renewal of
the war in
Schleswig
Holstein.**

March, 1849. On the 5th of April, the Danish ship-of-the-line "Christian VIII.", was sunk by German troops, and the Danish frigate "Gefion" was compelled to surrender. The triumphant Germans soon laid siege to Frederica, but they were afterwards driven back by the Danes. An armistice was concluded in July, 1849, and in the following year, 1850, a treaty of peace was signed by which the sovereignty

of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein remained in the hands of the King of Denmark.

31. We have already alluded to the abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand of Austria, and the accession of his nephew. The new Emperor, Francis Joseph, Austria and Prussian constitutions. dissolved the Austrian Constituent Diet at Kremsier; and on the 4th of March, 1849, he proclaimed a constitution for the Austrian empire. A new constitution went into operation in Prussia on the 6th of February, 1850, since which time Prussia has been a constitutional monarchy.

32. For many years, there had existed in Italy a party seeking to secure to Italy national unity, independence, and a constitutional government; and the Revolt of Sicily against Naples. Paris February Revolution was the signal for the leaders of this party to attempt to carry out their schemes. In January, 1848, the people of the island of Sicily rose in revolt against their sovereign, Ferdinand, King of Naples, established a provisional government, and asserted their independence. A bloody war ensued between the Sicilians and the Neapolitans. Ferdinand was forced to grant the people of Naples a liberal constitution; but, in consequence of Ferdinand's violation of his liberal promises, an insurrection broke out in the city of Naples, in May, 1848, and the king gave up his capital to be plundered and sacked by the lazzaroni, who brutally massacred many of the inhabitants. Ferdinand vigorously prosecuted the war against the revolted Sicilians. Messina surrendered to the Neapolitans, after a fierce bombardment of two days; the Sicilians were defeated in a furious battle at Catania; and Palermo yielded to the arms of the Neapolitans, after a short resistance. With the fall of Palermo, King Ferdinand of Naples recovered his authority throughout Sicily, after which he overthrew by violence the constitution in Naples, which he had granted in a moment of necessity.

83. For several years, there had been much political agitation in those portions of Italy subject to Austria,—namely, Lombardy and Venetia. The Paris Revolution of February aroused the Italians, and finally, the Vienna Revolution of March precipitated the climax in Austrian Italy. On the 18th of March, 1848, the people of Milan, on receiving intelligence of the March revolution of Vienna, flocked to the Government House, and demanded the release of all political prisoners, and the formation of a National Guard. The Austrian troops fired, whereupon the mob raised the cry of "Evviva Italia!" and rushing forward, overpowered the Guard. A discharge of musketry on the people, by the military, occasioned a general rising; and, after a barricade street-fight of five days, the Austrian troops were driven from the city. At the same time, a popular rising occurred at Parma and Pavia, and resulted in the expulsion of the Austrian garrisons from those places; and all Lombardy and Venetia was in open rebellion against the Austrian power.

84. On the 23d of March, 1848, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, issued a proclamation in favor of Italian nationality, and marched with an army into Lombardy, to assist the insurgents there to drive out the Austrians. The delays of Charles Albert gave the Austrian Field-Marshal, Radetzky, time to concentrate his forces and to receive reinforcements. The Sardinian king gained victories over the Austrians at Peschiera and Goito, and captured Rivoli; but, while he was employed in the siege of Mantua, the Austrians, under Radetzky, defeated the Sardinians at La Corona, after a desperate conflict. After defeating the King of Sardinia in a bloody battle at Custozza, on the 25th of July, and in another at Bussolongo, on the 26th, Field-Marshal Radetzky soon reconquered Milan, and reduced the whole of Lombardy to submission. King Charles Albert con-

War between
Austria and
Sardinia.

cluded an armistice with the Austrians, and then retired into his own dominions.

35. In June, 1846, Cardinal Mastai was chosen to fill the chair of St. Peter, with the title of Pius IX. The new pope was at first a zealous political reformer, and the liberal course pursued by him at once aroused a spirit of republicanism and nationality throughout the whole of Italy. Pius IX. granted his subjects freedom of the press, improved the administration of justice, and gave the city of Rome a liberal municipal government; but the liberal movement soon became too powerful for the weak pontiff to control. The Roman people at length outstripped Pius IX. in the matter of reform; and the promise of the Pope to grant a constitutional government to the Pontifical States did not satisfy his subjects. The appointment of Count Rossi, an avowed antagonist of the liberal movement, to the head of the ministry, excited the indignation of the Roman people, who thus became convinced that a reaction had taken place in the mind of the Pope. On the 15th of November, 1848, Rossi was assassinated on the steps of the Assembly House. A popular rising ensued; a mob proceeded to the Pope's palace, and, after a short conflict with the papal guards, forced the Pope to appoint a popular ministry. On the 23d (November, 1848), the Pope fled from Rome, and retired to Gaeta, in the kingdom of Naples. On the 9th of February, 1849, a popularly chosen National Assembly declared the Pope's temporal power at an end, and that the form of Government for the Roman State should be a pure democracy, with the title of "The Roman Republic." A Triumvirate was chosen to exercise executive duties; and at the head of the new government was the able, energetic, and eloquent Joseph Mazzini. The commander of the volunteers was the ardent republican, Joseph Garibaldi.

36. Urged on by the Italian republicans, King Charles

Albert, of Sardinia, declared his armistice with Austria at an end on the 20th of March, 1849, and, on the same day, his kingdom was invaded by the Austrian army under Field-Marshal Radetzky. After a spirited campaign of four days, on the Ticino and near Novaro, Sardinia lay prostrate before the power of Austria; and, on the evening of the 23d (March, 1849), Charles Albert abdicated the throne of Sardinia in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel, and immediately retired to Portugal, where he shortly afterwards died of a broken heart. On the 23th of March (1849), Victor Emmanuel concluded a treaty of peace with Austria, by which Sardinia was required to pay fifteen millions of dollars, as indemnity for the expenses of Austria in the war.

37. After waiting anxiously for several months for the Roman people to recall him, Pope Pius IX. appealed to the Roman Catholic powers for assistance to restore his temporal power. In response to this appeal, Republican France sent an army of 4,000 men, under General Oudinot, against Rome. The Roman republicans made earnest preparations for defence. The Roman National Assembly declared itself permanent, and Mazzini made fiery addresses to the people. When the French troops arrived before Rome, on the 30th of April, 1849, they found the Roman volunteers, under General Garibaldi, ready to make a determined resistance. The first attack of the French was repulsed, and the Eternal City held out heroically until its resources were exhausted; and after withstanding many furious assaults, and a regular bombardment, Rome surrendered to the besieging French on the 3d of July, 1849. General Garibaldi and the popular leaders escaped to England and the United States; and the Pope was restored to his former power, under the protection of foreign bayonets. Thenceforth Pope Pius IX. was a most zealous friend of absolutism, and a bitter antagonist to all liberal movements.

38. While victory shone upon the Austrian arms in Lombardy and Piedmont, an Austrian army was engaged in the siege of Venice, which, in March, 1848, had revolted against Austrian rule, and proclaimed "The Republic of St. Mark." Under the able republican leader, Manini, Venice maintained its independence for nearly a year and a half. After a siege of many months, during which much property had been destroyed, and all her provisions had been exhausted, Venice surrendered to Field-Marshal Radetzky on the 25th of August, 1849; and, with the fall of that gallant city, the authority of Austria was re-established throughout Lombardy and Venetia.

Siege and fall of Venice.

39. Just after the Vienna revolution of March, 1848, a deputation from Hungary, headed by Louis Kossuth, appeared in Vienna, and asked for the Hungarian kingdom the royal assent to a series of acts passed by the Hungarian Diet, providing for the annual meeting of that body; the union of Transylvania with Hungary; the organization of a Hungarian National Guard; equality of taxation for all classes; religious toleration; liberty of the press, and a separate ministry for Hungary. These acts were approved by the Emperor-King, who, on the 11th of April, 1848, personally confirmed them in the Hungarian Diet, convened at Pesth, the capital of Hungary. These concessions were hailed with joy by the Hungarians.

The Austrian Emperor's concessions to the Hungarians.

40. The Croats and the other Slavonic races under the Hungarian government, jealous of the ascendancy of the Magyars, and demanding their independence of Hungarian rule, took up arms against the Magyars. The Croats were encouraged in their rebellion by the Austrian government, and Austrian armies were sent to their assistance. The Servians, a Slavonic race, who had revolted against the Hungarian government, laid waste the Magyar villages, and com-

Slavonic revolt against Hungary.

mitted the greatest atrocities on the defenceless population. The Hungarian war ~~actually~~ actually opened on the 12th of June, 1848, when the Magyars bombarded Karlowitz, the Servian metropolis. The Servians in the Ottoman territories hastened to the aid of their brethren in the Austrian dominions; and the Magyars were obliged to take refuge in the fortress of Peterwardien. The whole Servian population in the Banat then arose against the Magyars, and hostilities between the contending races raged with great fury.

41. On the 29th of June, 1848, the Imperial Government at Vienna announced Austria's intention to openly

Austria supports the Slavie Rebellion. support the Slavie races in their revolt against Magyar rule; and it soon appeared that the Emperor Ferdinand, after the suppression of

the rebellion against Austrian authority in Northern Italy, was resolved to deprive the Magyars of the privileges which he had recently granted to them. Convinced that the rights of Hungary must be defended by force of arms, the Hungarian Diet resolved to raise an army of 200,000 men.

42. In the meantime, a united Austrian and Croatian force, under the command of Jellachich, the ban or governor of Croatia, had invaded Hungary and

Jellachich's invasion of Hungary.

advanced toward Pesth; but the Magyars, aroused by the eloquent and patriotic appeals of Louis Kossuth, one of the ablest of their leaders, soon repulsed the invaders, compelled Jellachich to flee, and, on the 5th of October, 1848, captured the Croatian rear-guard, consisting of 10,000 men.

43. Wearied of the contentions in the various parts of his dominions, the Austrian Emperor, Ferdinand, abdicated his throne, on the 2d of December, 1848,

Abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand.

and was succeeded by his nephew, Francis Joseph. As the new Emperor did not take the requisite oath to support the constitution, laws, and

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liberties of Hungary, the Magyars refused to acknowledge him as their sovereign.

44. All the efforts of the Magyars for a peaceful settlement of difficulties were unsuccessful, as the Austrian Government was resolved upon depriving Hungary of her rights. The Magyars therefore made the most vigorous exertions for defense; **Hungarian preparations for the struggle.** manufactories of arms and ammunition were established, the peasants of Hungary flew to arms, and the most intense enthusiasm was manifested.

45. In December, 1848, the Austrian army, under Windischgratz, entered Hungary from the west; and, on the 5th of January, 1849, Pesth fell into the hands of the Austrian and Croatian forces, **Austrian and Croatian invasion of Hungary.** under Windischgratz and Jellachich. Kossuth and the Hungarian Ministry and Diet retired to Debreczin, in the Northern part of Hungary.

46. On the 30th of January 1849, the Magyars lost the strong fortress of Eszeck, in Slavonia, which was surrendered to the imperialists, with its garrison of 5,000 men. About the same time, General **Fall of Eszeck.** Bem, a Pole, who was at the head of an army of 10,000 Magyars, was driven from Transylvania, the Saxons and Wallachs, who inhabit that province, having joined the Austrians; but the warlike Eszecklers of Southern Hungary having risen in favor of the Magyars, Bem returned to Transylvania, defeated the Austrians and Russians who opposed him, took Kronstadt and Hermanstadt, and then passed into the Banat, and captured Temeswar, its capital.

47. At the beginning of February, 1849, Kossuth appointed General Dembinski, also a Pole, to the chief command of the Magyar forces. Dembinski concentrated the Hungarian armies in the **Concentration of the Magyar Forces.** upper part of the valley of the Theiss, to meet the advancing Austrians under Windischgratz. On

the 26th and 27th of February (1849), a bloody battle was fought between 40,000 Magyars and 60,000 Austrians at Kapolna, where, in consequence of the inactivity of the Hungarian general Görgey, the imperialists were victorious.

48. At length, Görgey was entrusted with the chief command of the Hungarian armies, Dembinski having resigned that post a few days after the battle of Kapolna. After fourteen days of terrific hand-to-hand fighting, commencing with the battle of Szolnok, on the 27th of March, and ending with the capture of Waitzen by Görgey, on the 9th of April, the Magyars recovered Pesth, relieved Komorn, and utterly routed the imperialists. On the 17th of April, the chief command of the Austrian armies was assigned to Baron Welden. On the 18th (April, 1849), Welden was defeated at Szoniz; and on the 17th, the Austrian reserve, under Wohlgemuth, was annihilated at Nagy Sarlo. The Austrians were severely repulsed in several attempts to carry by storm the strong fortress of Komorn; and Welden was compelled to retreat toward Vienna. Instead of following up his successes by threatening the Austrian capital, as urged by Kossuth, Görgey laid siege to the strong fortress of Buda, opposite Pesth. Görgey carried Buda by storm, on the 21st of May, but the siege involved a delay fatal to the cause of Hungary, and saved Vienna, and probably the Austrian Empire. The imperial forces were now completely driven out of Hungary, and the first campaign ended in the triumph of the Magyars.

49. On the 4th of March, 1849, the Emperor Francis Joseph proclaimed a constitution for the Austrian Empire, by which Hungary was to be incorporated with Austria. The Austrian Government also solicited the aid of Russia to crush the Hungarian Rebellion. The Hungarian Diet at Debreczin, convinced of the impossibility of a reconciliation with

Görgey's victories over the Austrians.

An Imperial Constitution.

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Austria, took a decisive step, on the 14th of April, 1849, by declaring the independence of Hungary; and Louis Kossuth was appointed Governor of Hungary, with almost absolute powers. On the 12th of May, the Emperor of Austria issued a proclamation to the Magyars, announcing the intervention of Russia, and ordering them to lay down their arms.

50. In response to Austria's application for Russian assistance in subduing the Magyar insurgents, the Czar Nicholas sent an army of 160,000 men, under the command of Prince Paskiewitsch, to invade Hungary on the northeast. At the same time, the Austrians were preparing to reënter Hungary on the west; and by the 1st of June, 400,000 hostile troops were on the Hungarian frontiers. On the 30th of May, the brutal Baron Haynau was invested with the chief command of the Austrian armies. At about the same time, early in June, Haynau, with 5,000 Austrians, entered Hungary at Presburg; Paskiewitsch, with 90,000 Russians, crossed the Galician frontiers, and invaded Hungary on the northeast; an Austro-Russian army of 25,000 men entered Transylvania; and Jellachich, with his Croats, advanced into the Magyar territory from the south.

51. Now opened the second campaign in the Hungarian war,—the campaign which resulted in the subjugation of the Hungarian insurgents. After a gallant resistance, Bem was driven from Transylvania, by the overwhelming forces of the Russians; Paskiewitsch, with the main Russian army, entered Debreczin on the 7th of July, and Pesth on the 11th, and compelled Dembinski to retreat southward into the Banat; and Jellachich, after suffering a severe defeat near Hegyes, marched up the Theiss with his Croats, to form a junction with the Austrians under Haynau.

52. Haynau, who had in the meantime advanced from Presburg with the main Austrian army, was defeated by

Battle of Komorn—Retreat of Görgey.

Görgey, near Komorn, on the 11th of July. From Komorn, Görgey retreated eastward to Tokay, and thence southward to Arad, which place he reached on the 8th of August. On the 19th of July, Haynau entered Pesth, and then went in pursuit of Görgey. The cruelties of Haynau during his whole career in Hungary reflected disgrace upon his memory, and acquired for him the well-merited title of "Hungary's Hangman."

53. While Haynau was marching southward in pursuit of the retreating Görgey, an event occurred far in his rear which created serious alarm among the Austrians. On the 3d of August, the garrison of Komorn, under General Klapka, made a grand sortie from the fortress, utterly routed the Austrians in that vicinity, and opened the road to Vienna. On the 8th August, 1849, after four days' fighting with the Austrians, Dembinski was severely wounded, whereupon the command of his armies devolved on Bem, who, on the following day (August 9, 1849), engaged the Austrian and Croatian forces, under Haynau and Jellachich, at Temeswar, where, after a sanguinary conflict, in which Bem was covered with wounds, the army which he commanded was thoroughly annihilated, Görgey, although within a short distance of the place where he was fighting, having neglected to come to his assistance.

54. The disasters to the Hungarian arms were in a great measure owing to the dissensions and want of concert among the Polish and Magyar generals; and Görgey, with whom the gratification of personal ambition was a primary consideration, was striving for absolute power. At the request of Görgey, and at the solicitation of his friends, Kossuth, on the 10th of August, 1849, dissolved the provisional government, and appointed the ambitious general dictator. Görgey had long been suspected of treachery to the cause

Görgey made Dictator.

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of Hungary, and he had repeatedly disobeyed the orders of the provisional government. It now appeared that he had for some-time been engaged in a treasonable correspondence with the enemies of his country, and he immediately made use of his absolute power to ruin the cause of Hungarian independence. On the 13th of August, 1849, Görgey surrendered, without any conditions, his entire army of 85,000 men, to the Russian general Rudiger, at Villagos.

55. The treacherous surrender of Görgey paralyzed all the efforts of the Magyars, the various Hungarian detachments laid down their arms, and Hungary lay powerless before the despot power of ^{Submission} ~~of Hungary.~~ Austria. Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski, and many others of the patriot leaders, fled into the Ottoman dominions, and the Sultan of Turkey nobly refused to deliver them up, at the demands of the Austrian Government. Bem received a command in the Turkish army. In 1850, Kossuth left Turkey, and visited England and the United States, in which countries his noble efforts in the cause of Hungarian freedom excited universal sympathy.

56. On the 29th of September, 1849, Komorn surrendered to the Austrians on favorable conditions, and, with the fall of that important fortress, all military opposition to Austrian power in Hungary ^{Surrender of} ~~Komorn—Ex-~~ ceased. To the everlasting infamy of the ^{ecution of} ~~Hungarian~~ Austrian Government, thirteen Hungarian ^{Leaders.} ~~generals and staff officers were executed at~~ Arad, on the 6th of October, 1849. Many of the Hungarian civil leaders met the same fate. A large number of the inferior officers were imprisoned in fortresses, some for a term of years, and others for life; and no less than 70,000 Hungarians who had engaged in the rebellion were compelled to serve in the Austrian army.

CHAPTER CXI.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE LATEST WARS AND REVOLUTIONS.

1. UPON assuming the office of President of the French Republic, Louis Napoleon publicly avowed the principles of his government to be strictly republican.

Parties in the French National Assembly.

The different parties in the French National Assembly were the Legitimists, or adherents of the elder branch of the Bourbons; the Orleanists, who desired the placing of the heir of Louis Philippe upon the throne of France; the Bonapartists, or Imperialists, who desired the restoration of the French Empire; the Red Republicans, and the Moderate Republicans, or friends of the existing constitution.

2. From the beginning, there was a lack of harmony between the executive and legislative branches of the

Disagreement between the President and the National Assembly.

Government, the National Assembly having no faith in the republican professions of the President. The Assembly restricted the right of suffrage and the freedom of the press, and in many other ways encroached upon the rights of the French people. In 1849, a French army, under General Oudinot, was sent to Rome, to overthrow the republic which had been established there. The French constitution of 1848 provided for its revision by the National Assembly during the last year of the Presidential term, and it also made the President ineligible to re-election before an interval of four years. Louis Napoleon desired to have it revised and so altered as to render him eligible to re-election; but the Assembly, by a large vote, in 1851, refused to revise it. The President, in his message, in November, 1851, advised the Assembly to extend the right of suffrage; but the Assembly rejected a proposition for that purpose, and soon afterwards a proposition was offered threatening the President with impeachment if he should

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seek a re-election contrary to the provisions of the constitution.

8. The breach between the President and the National Assembly was rapidly widening; and finally Louis Napoleon determined to crush, at one blow, all opposition to his will, by a bold stroke of state policy. About five o'clock in the morning of the 2d of December, 1851, the principal streets of Paris were occupied by troops; and the leading members of the Assembly, and the chief military leaders, whom Louis Napoleon knew were opposed to his ambitious schemes, were seized in their beds, and shut up in prison. M. Thiers and Generals Cavaignac, Changarnier, and Lamoriciere, and other prominent characters, were arrested by detachments of police, assisted by the guards, and were imprisoned in the chateau of Vincennes. At the dawn of day, the Parisians were surprised to find the walls everywhere covered with placards containing the following decree: "In the name of the French people, the President of the Republic decrees: 1. The National Assembly is dissolved: 2. Universal suffrage is re-established; the law of 31st of May is repealed: 3. The French people are convoked in their communes, from the 14th to the 31st of December: 4. The state of siege is decreed in the whole of the first military division: 5. The Council of State is dissolved: The Minister of the Interior is charged with the execution of this decree.—Louis Napoleon Bonaparte." During the day, some of the members of the National Assembly met at the residence of M. Daru, declared the President guilty of treason, and decreed his deposition; but no sooner had they signed the decree than they were seized by the military and conducted to prison. None of the journals but those that supported the President were permitted to be printed and distributed. This bold act of usurpation, dignified by the title "The Coup d'Etat," was completely successful; the republican constitution was

The Coup
d'Etat.

overthrown, and Louis Napoleon was a monarch in all but in name.

4. On the 2d of December, no resistance was made to the President's usurpation; but about ten o'clock on the morning of the 3d, M. Baudin, a representative of the people, appeared at the head of a mob in Rue St. Antoine, but the arrival of the military restored order, and M. Baudin and two other representatives were punished with death. On the following day (December 4, 1851), barricades were erected in many of the streets of Paris; but at noon, large bodies of troops swept the Boulevards, fired upon the buildings, killed many innocent people and put an end to all resistance before night. The troops gave no quarter to the insurgents, and more than 2,000 persons were killed. In the eastern departments of France, the rural population rose in great strength against the usurpation; but the army remaining faithful to the President, the insurrection was suppressed in a few days.

5. On Saturday and Sunday, December 20th and 21st, elections were held throughout France, the question submitted to the nation being whether or not Louis Napoleon should hold the office of President for ten years. Louis Napoleon elected President for ten years. President ten years longer, with the power of forming a new constitution for France, on the basis of universal suffrage. No other candidate was allowed to be named. The army voted first, and, as was to be expected, its vote was nearly unanimous in favor of Louis Napoleon; and the entire majority in favor of the lengthened Presidential term was 6,761,659 votes. On New Year's Day, 1852, the result of the election was celebrated in Paris with all possible magnificence: seventy rounds of artillery were fired at the Invalides at 10 A. M.; the Te Deum was sung at noon, in the Church of Notre Dame, the President himself being present; and a banquet was given at the Tuileries, at which 400 persons participated.

6. On the 14th of January, 1852, the new constitution proposed by Louis Napoleon was decreed. The constitution entrusted the executive authority to Louis Napoleon for ten years, and clothed him with almost absolute power. The legislative power was vested in a Senate, composed of the most gifted men in France; a Council of State, to originate and enact laws; and a Corps Legislatif, chosen by universal suffrage, to discuss and enact laws.

New Constitution.

7. The great end of all Louis Napoleon's ambition was the restoration of the French Empire. By means of newspaper agents and a mercenary press, the President prepared the minds of the French people to pronounce at the ballot-box in favor of or against the reëstablishment of the imperial throne. The election resulted in a majority of 7,611,035 votes in favor of imperialism; and on the 2d of December, 1852, Louis Napoleon was formally proclaimed "Emperor of the French," with the title of Napoleon III. Thus ended the Second French Republic; and thus was established the Second French Empire, under Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnais. A large number of persons who had actively opposed Louis Napoleon's assumption of imperial power were arrested on the charge of treason, and imprisoned or banished to Algeria or Cayenne.

Louis Napoleon made "Emperor of the French."

8. The new Emperor's next movement was the consummation of a marriage for the perpetuation of his dynasty; and, as all his proposals to foreign courts for the negotiation of a match were rejected, he selected for his bride, Eugenie de Montijo, Countess of Teba, a Spanish lady, who was not related to any reigning family. On the 2d of January, 1853, the announcement of the approaching nuptials was made to the French Senate. On the 29th of the same month, the civil marriage was celebrated at the Tuilleries;

Marriage of Napoleon III.

and on the 30th, the religious ceremonies were celebrated with great pomp, in the Church of Notre Dame.

9. For a long time, a dispute in regard to the Holy Places at Jerusalem had raged at Constantinople, between the Greek and Romish Churches, Russia supporting the claims of the Greek, and France those of the Romish Church. Early in 1853,

a dispute arose between Russia and Turkey, which threatened to disturb the peace of Europe. The Emperor Nicholas of Russia, claimed the right to exercise a protectorate over the Greek Christians in the Ottoman dominions. This demand was justly regarded as incompatible with the dignity of the Sultan as an independent sovereign; and, by the advice of the English and French ministers at Constantinople, the demands of the Czar were rejected, and his extravagant pretensions denied, but the Sultan by a "hatti sheriff," confirmed all the privileges of his Christian subjects.

10. Immediately after the demand of the Russian autocrat had been rejected by the Ottoman Porte, 60,000 Russian troops invaded the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Sultan demanded the evacuation of his dominions, threatening, in case of a refusal, a declaration of war. The fleets of France and England were ordered to the Dardanelles, while England, France, Austria and Prussia vainly endeavored to bring about an adjustment of the dispute by negotiation. The arrogance of Russia prevented a peaceful solution of the difficulty; and, on the 5th of October, 1853, the Turkish Government declared war against Russia. On the 14th (October, 1853), the fleets of Great Britain and France, at the request of the Sultan, passed the Dardanelles.

11. In the latter part of October, 1853, the Turkish forces crossed the Danube, for the purpose of expelling the Russians from the Ottoman territories. Under

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the command of their experienced general, ^{Turkish victories on the Danube.} Omar Pacha, the Turks won many splendid victories. On the 18th of November (1853), the Turkish fleet at Sinope, on the southern coast of the Black Sea, was suddenly and unexpectedly attacked and destroyed by the Russian fleet. Before the close of the year, the British and French fleets were ordered into the Black Sea, to protect the Turks.

12. As the Czar Nicholas still rejected all proposals for an amicable settlement of the dispute, England and France, closely in alliance with Turkey, ^{Alliance of England, France, and Turkey.} declared war against Russia, at the close of March, 1854; but Austria and Prussia remained neutral. An allied English and French army of 90,000 men under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, was sent to the assistance of the Turks, and a powerful Anglo-French naval armament, under Sir Charles Napier, was dispatched to the Baltic sea. The Russians, under Prince Gortschakoff, their commander-in-chief, crossed the Danube, the Ottoman forces retreating in good order before the invaders.

13. On the 22d of April, 1854, the allied English and French fleets bombarded the Russian commercial town of Odessa, on the Black Sea. During the summer, the Turks, under Mussa Pacha, ^{Bombardment of Odessa.} successfully defended Silistria against 90,000 Russians under Prince Paskiewitch, and finally compelled them to raise the siege, and evacuate the Turkish dominions.

14. In September, 1854, an expedition, composed of English, French, and Turkish troops, landed at Eupatoria, in the peninsula of the Crimea, and, on the 20th of that month, ^{Allied Expedition to the Crimea.} gained a brilliant victory over the Russians at Alma. A few days afterward, Marshal St. Arnaud died, and the command of the French army was assigned to General Can-

robert. The siege of Sevastopol commenced on the 17th of October, 1854, when the allies opened their first bombardment on the town.

15. The Russians sent large reinforcements to their army in the Crimea, for the purpose of compelling the allies to evacuate the peninsula. On the 25th of October, 1854, occurred the famous battle of Balaklava, in which the English Light Cavalry Brigade of 600 men was almost totally destroyed, in a reckless charge upon the strong Russian position.

16. Large bodies of Russian troops continued to pour into the Crimea, for the purpose of relieving the beleaguered fortress of Sevastopol; and on the 5th of November, 1854, was fought the bloody battle of Inkermann, in which 8000 English troops held their ground firmly against 50,000 Russians for seven hours, when the appearance of a French force of 6000 men under General Bosquet soon decided the battle against the Russians, who were driven with heavy loss into the fortress of Sevastopol.

17. On the 2d of March, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by his son, Alexander II., who declared his resolution of adhering to the policy of his father. A conference composed of representatives of England, France, Turkey, and Russia, was held at Vienna, in the spring of 1855, for the purpose of bringing about a peace; but, as Russia rejected the demand of the allied powers, that the war-vessels of all nations should be excluded from the Black Sea, the efforts for peace failed; and Sardinia joined the allied powers in their war against Russia.

18. In the meantime, hostilities were prosecuted with vigor in the Crimean peninsula. On the 17th of February, 1855, the Russians assaulted the intrénned

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camp of the Turks at Eupatoria, but were ^{Siege of} repulsed, after a fierce engagement. A ^{Sevastopol} evere battle between the Russians and the French occurred on the 22d of March (1855), in which the Russians lost over 2000 men, and the French 600 men. The second bombardment of Sevastopol commenced on the 9th of April, and continued for several days. The incompetent Canrobert was superseded in the command of the French forces by the able and energetic General Pelissier. The third bombardment of Sevastopol, which commenced on the 6th of June, resulted in giving the French possession of the Mamelon, while the English captured the Round Tower. On the 18th of June (the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo), the French assailed the Malakoff Tower, while the English, at the same time, stormed the Redan. Both attacks were repulsed. On the 28th (June, 1855), Lord Raglan died, and was succeeded in the command of the English forces by General Simpson. On the 16th of August, 60,000 Russians were repulsed in an assault upon the French and the Sardinians at Tchernaya.

19. While the events just related were occurring in the Crimean peninsula, hostilities were being prosecuted in other quarters. On the 9th of August, 1855, the combined English and French fleet ^{Attack on} ^{Sweaborg.} in the Baltic, under Sir Charles Napier, commenced an attack upon Sweaborg, which was continued until the 17th, without effecting any important result.

20. On the 5th of September, 1855, commenced the fourth bombardment of Sevastopol. On the 8th, the French captured the Malakoff, after a furious assault, but, at the same time, the English ^{Fall of Sevas-} ^{topol.} were repulsed in an attack upon the Redan. The fall of the Malakoff rendered a further defense of the place useless; and on the 9th (September, 1855), the Russians evacuated the southern side of Sevastopol, and left the town and the harbor in the possession of the allies.

21. On the 15th of October, 1855, General Bazaine, with 15,000 French, and 4000 English troops, from the allied army in the Crimea, landed at Kinburn, and captured that post, after a fierce bombardment. Late in November, the Turks, under Omar Pacha, achieved a glorious victory at the river Ingour, when they forced a passage over the stream, and compelled the Russians to evacuate their position and retreat to Kutais.

22. Important events occurred in Asiatic Turkey. On the 29th of September, 1855, the Turkish forces, under the command of the English general Williams, repulsed an attack of the Russians upon the town of Kars, and the place was defended successfully until the 28th of November (1855), when the Turkish garrison was compelled to surrender and the town fell into the hands of the Russians.

23. Early in 1856, an armistice was proclaimed, and soon afterward, the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, France, Sardinia, Turkey, and Russia, assembled in Paris; and a treaty of peace was agreed upon, on Sunday, March 30th, 1856. By this treaty, the Russian forts and arsenals on the Black Sea were destroyed; Russia was to renounce all interference in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire; the vessels of all nations were to have the right to navigate the Danube; the Christian subjects of the Sultan were to be secured in certain privileges; and the Russian fortress of Nicolaiëff was to be dismantled. The eagle's quill mounted with gold and gems, with which the treaty was signed, was presented to the Empress Eugenie of France. Thus closed the Crimean war, in which more than one million of men perished.

24. In less than a year after the termination of her war with Russia, England became involved in wars with

**Capture of
Kinburn—
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tory at the
Ingour.**

**The War in
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Persia and China. The war with Persia ^{England's} lasted only a few months, but the contest ^{was with Persia and} with China was not closed before the autumn ^{China.} of 1860. The English and their allies, the French, completely humbled the Chinese, whose chief cities, Canton and Peking were taken, and the Chinese Emperor fled in consternation from his capital. By the treaty of Tientsin, in October, 1860, the Chinese were obliged to allow a British minister, to reside at Peking. But a struggle of far greater magnitude than the Persian and Chinese wars employed the military strength of the British Empire—namely, the war produced by the mutiny of the Sepoys, or Hindoos in the military service of the East-India Company.

25. For a long time, the Mohammedans of India had been dissatisfied with their subordinate position. When, in 1849, Lord Dalhousie, Governor-General of ^{Discontent of} British India, compelled the titular king of ^{the Moham-} Delhi to exchange the fortress of Delhi for the ^{medans of} royal palace of Kootub, the hatred ^{India.} of the Delhi Mohammedans against the British Government was increased. When the Kingdom of Oude was annexed to the British Indian Empire, many of the Sepoys comprising the Bengal army who were natives of Oude were aroused to the highest pitch of indignation; and they succeeded in uniting all the Mohammedan sects in India, with the view of freeing themselves from British power.

26. Circumstances soon occurred which favored the cause of the Mohammedans of India. It had been rumored among the Hindoos that the British ^{The Enfield} Government had resolved to compel all its ^{Rifles and} subjects to embrace the Christian religion, ^{the greased} and abolish the distinctions of caste which prevailed ^{cartridges.} among the Hindoos. Early in 1857, the East-India Company armed its Hindoo soldiers with the Enfield rifles, for which cartridges greased with pig's and cow's fat were

used. The Hindoos are forbidden by their religion to taste animal food; and, as the ends of the greased cartridges must be bitten off, the Sepoys believed that by using them they would become defiled, lose their caste, and be bound to adopt the religion of their masters. Mohammedan emissaries secretly aroused the dissatisfaction of the Hindoos, for the advancement of their own rebellious schemes.

27. During the month of April, 1857, many of the regiments composed of Sepoys in the Bengal army manifested a mutinous spirit. The 19th and 34th

**Mutiny of the
Bengal army.**

regiments, the Oude irregular infantry, and a part of the 3d Light Cavalry at Meerut, were the first to rise in rebellion. Other Sepoy regiments followed their example, and before long, the whole Hindoo portion of the Bengal army, about 120,000 men, stood in armed opposition to the British Government. The rebellion was purely a mutiny, and not a popular insurrection.

28. On the 11th of May, 1857, a party of mutineers from Meerut fiendishly massacred all the English residents at Delhi; but a small English force

**Massacre of
Delhi.**

under the gallant Lieutenant Willoughby, blew up the arsenal, to prevent it from falling into the hands of the rebels.

29. At Cawnpore, 300 English troops under Sir Hugh Wheeler, and 500 women and children, were attacked and

**Massacre of
Cawnpore.**

besieged by a body of mutineers under Nena Sahib, a Mahratta prince. When Nena Sahib found that he could not take the place by force, he offered the garrison and the women and children a safe passage to Allahabad, if they would evacuate Cawnpore; but no sooner had they embarked on boats in the river, than they were fired upon by the treacherous mutineers, and many of the number were killed. One hundred and fifty who had surrendered were put to death, and the women and children were massacred soon afterward.

80. At Lucknow, Sir Henry Lawrence, at the head of an English force, defeated a large body of the rebel Sepoys, but he was afterwards besieged in the residency at that place, and was mortally wounded in a sally, in the beginning of July, 1857.

*Siege of
Lucknow.*

81. The greatest excitement prevailed in England on the arrival of intelligence of the mutiny of the hitherto loyal Bengal army and the fiendish atrocities perpetrated by the mutineers. Within four months, 80,000 troops were sent from Great Britain to India, for the suppression of the Sepoy rebellion and the full restoration of British authority in Hindoostan; and Sir Colin Campbell was sent to take the chief command of the British forces in India.

*Excitement
in England.*

82. General Havelock, with British and loyal Hindoo troops, marched to the relief of the English garrison, under Sir Hugh Wheeler at Cawnpore. He reached that place after marching 126 miles and fighting four engagements with the mutineers, and after Nena Sahib had treacherously massacred the women and children, as already stated. When Havelock approached Cawnpore, Nena Sahib and his insurgent band fled; but they were pursued, and defeated eight times, on the banks of the Ganges, by the force under Havelock. The Sepoy regiments at Dinapore mutinied on the 25th of July, 1857, and having fled from the station, they were pursued and defeated by Major Eyre, of the Bengal artillery.

*General
Havelock's
victories.*

83. In the latter part of August, 1857, the British force before Delhi, which had quietly watched the insurgents who had held possession of that famous city, was reinforced by English and Sikh troops; and on the 25th (August, 1857), the mutineers were defeated at Nujuffghur with heavy loss. On the 7th of September, the British commenced besieging

*Siege and fall
of Delhi.*

Delhi with vigor. The whole British force did not exceed 4,000 men. On the 14th of September, General Wilson, the British commander, divided his army into four columns. Two of these columns carried the Cashmere and Water bastions by storm, on the same day. The Cashmere gate was blown up, when the third column joined the other two in the assault; and before the close of the day, the British were masters of a considerable portion of the city. The fourth column was repulsed in an attack upon the city. On the 15th (September, 1857), the British shelled the palace and battered the magazine; and on the 16th, a British storming party rushed forward, whereupon the insurgent artillerymen fled in dismay, leaving the British in possession of six pieces of cannon. On the 17th and 18th, the British gained several important advantages; and after several more assaults, the mutineers entirely evacuated the city of Delhi, which came into the military possession of the English on the 20th of September, 1857. A great part of the town was laid in ruins and filled with corpses, and numbers of captured mutineers were put to a cruel death.

34. Since June, 1857, a large body of English troops and women and children had been besieged in the residency at Lucknow, by 50,000 insurgents.

*Siege of
Lucknow.*

While marching to their relief, General Havelock defeated 40,000 insurgents, in the battle of Mungarwar, on the 21st of September, 1857. After a forced march of four days, Havelock and his troops appeared at Lucknow, on the 25th of September, and relieved the brave garrison. After severe fighting, the rebel Sepoys were repulsed in all their assaults; but they still continued the siege with vigor. On the 12th of November, 1857, Sir Colin Campbell arrived at Lucknow, with a strong English force, and took the garrison, along with the women and children, to Cawnpore.

35. In December, 1857, Cawnpore was attacked by

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25,000 rebel Sepoys, but the timely arrival of the British force, under Sir Colin Campbell, saved the place, and obliged the mutineers to retire, ^{Insurgent attack on Cawnpore.} after a severe engagement. Soon afterwards Sir Colin Campbell laid siege to Lucknow, which place, after a vigorous siege, fell into the hands of the British on the 17th of March, 1858.

36. After the fall of Lucknow, Gwalior became the stronghold of the Sepoy rebellion; but in June, 1858, that strong place was compelled to yield to the British arms; after which the war assumed a ^{Siege and capture of Gwalior.} guerrilla character, and small bands roamed over various parts of India until the close of 1859, when peace was fully restored, and British authority was completely reestablished in India. The active power of the rebellion had passed away with the fall of Gwalior, in the summer of 1858; and soon after the event, the Governor-General, Lord Canning, ordered a ^{public} thanksgiving for the overthrow of the rebellion, and the restoration of peace to British India. Many of the vanquished rebels were put to death in a most barbarous manner. A very important result of the mutiny was the transfer, in the summer of 1858, of the government of British India from the East India Company to the English crown.

37. In January, 1858, while the Emperor Napoleon III. was passing the Italian opera-house in Paris, three hollow projectiles were aimed at his person, killing ^{Attempted assassination of Napoleon III.} and wounding a number of persons. The Italian refugee, Orsini, who made this attempt at regicide, was punished with death.

38. During the reception of foreign ministers, at his palace, on New Year's Day, 1859, the Emperor Napoleon III., in speaking to the Austrian ambassador ^{Warlike threat of Napoleon III.} to France about the affairs of Italy, made some remarks which were regarded by all who heard them as implying a threat of war; and it soon appeared

that France was arming on an extensive scale. A marriage was negotiated between Prince Napoleon, the Emperor's cousin, and the Princess Clotilda, daughter of Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, who was an avowed opponent of Austria with respect to the question of Italian independence; and events indicated the speedy approach of war.

39. The King of Sardinia, supported by France, was now making earnest preparations for war. Austria demanded

Demands of Austria for the disarmament of Sardinia.

that Sardinia should immediately disarm. Great Britain and Russia endeavored to avert hostilities by negotiation; but Austria's demand for the immediate disarmament of Sardinia was opposed by the other powers. Austria then proposed that all the powers should disarm. This was agreed to by Russia, Prussia, England, France, and Sardinia; but the proposition that the Italian States should be represented in a Congress of the Five Great Powers was opposed by Austria, which still insisted on the immediate disarmament of Sardinia. This demand was still objected to by the other powers; and, as Austria would not recede from the position which she had taken, all hopes for an amicable settlement of the difficulty were dispelled.

40. In the latter part of April, 1859, Austria sent to Sardinia an ultimatum, demanding the immediate dis-

Sardinia's rejection of Austria's ultimatum.

bandment of her Italian volunteers, allowing only three days for a reply, and threatening war in case of a rejection of the demand. The King of Sardinia rejected the Austrian ultimatum; and the Chambers, which he immediately summoned, conferred upon him dictatorial powers. On the 26th of April, 1859, the Austrian army, in three divisions, numbering together 120,000 men, crossed the Ticino, and invaded Sardinia.

41. When intelligence of the Austrian invasion of Sardinia reached France, a manifesto prepared by the French

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Emperor was presented to the Corps Legislatif, declaring that France would stand by Sardinia. Large bodies of French troops were now pushed forward into Italy with the utmost haste; and, on the 10th of May, the Emperor Napoleon III., leaving the Government of France in the hands of the Empress Eugenie as regent, left Paris to take command of the French troops in person. On the 12th May, 1859, he reached Genoa, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

French troops sent to Italy.

42. After having exhausted the country which they had invaded, the Austrians fell back slowly toward Lombardy. The first battle of the Italian war was fought on the 20th of May, 1859, at Montebello,—the same place where on the 9th of June, 1800, the French under General Lannes, defeated the Austrians. After desperate fighting, the Austrians were defeated, with considerable loss. The French, who were commanded by General Forey, lost less than 700 men in killed and wounded. Among the killed on the side of the French was General Beuret. On the following day, May 21, 1859, a slight engagement occurred between the Austrians and the left wing of the allied army under General Cialdini.

Battle of Montebello.

43. A body of Italian volunteers, under General Garibaldi invaded Lombardy and captured Varese, where they repulsed an attack of the Austrians, on the 26th of May. After a fierce conflict on the 27th, the Italians took possession of Como, the Austrians retreating to Camerletta, where they were again defeated, and compelled to continue their retreat. On the 29th of May, the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria left Vienna for the seat of war, and arrived at Verona on the 31st. On the 29th, the Sardinians crossed the Sesia, and forced the Austrian works at Palestro, capturing two pieces of artillery, and some small arms and

Italian and French invasion of Lombardy.

prisoners. On the 31st, 25,000 Austrians were severely repulsed in an attempt to recover Palestro. On the 1st of June, a French force under General Niel expelled the Austrians from Novara after an insignificant conflict. The Emperor of the French entered Novara at five o'clock in the evening of the same day, meeting with an enthusiastic reception.

44. On the 4th of June, 1859, was fought the great battle of Magenta, in which 100,000 French and Sardinians, under General MacMahon, were engaged.

**Battle of
Magenta.**

The Austrians were defeated, with the loss of 27,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. After the battle the Emperor of the French and the King of Sardinia entered Milan, where they were welcomed with the warmest enthusiasm. Napoleon III. published a proclamation to the Italian people, declaring his intention of securing to Italy nationality and independence; and Victor Emmanuel issued a proclamation to the people of Lombardy, declaring that country united with Sardinia.

45. On the 8th of June, occurred the battle of Melegnano, which lasted nine hours, and in which 30,000 Aus-

**Battles of
Melegnano
and Solferino.**

trians were engaged. The Austrians were defeated, with the loss of 3200 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. On the 24th of June (1859), was fought the famous battle of Solferino, in which the contending forces of each side numbered about 140,000 men, and in which the Emperor Napoleon III. and King Victor Emmanuel commanded their troops in person. This sanguinary conflict raged from five o'clock in the morning until late in the afternoon, and resulted in the utter defeat of the Austrians, who were compelled to make a hasty retreat.

46. An armistice was agreed to on the 8th of July, 1859; and the 11th of the same month, a treaty of peace was signed at Villa Franca, between the Emperors

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of France and Austria. The treaty was concluded on the following basis: the formation of an Italian Confederation, under the honorary presidency of the Pope; the cession of Lombardy by Austria to France, in trust for Sardinia; and Venetia, although retained by Austria, to constitute an integral part of the Italian Confederation. The King of Sardinia was dissatisfied with this treaty, and his Prime Minister, Count Cavour, immediately resigned. The Emperor Napoleon III. now left Italy, and arrived at his palace of St. Cloud on the 17th of July. A definitive treaty of peace was agreed upon at Zurich, in November, 1859. In a war with Anam (1858-1862), France obtained by conquest a large portion of Cochin-China.

47. Important events occurred in Italy in 1860—events which resulted in the unification of Italy. General Garibaldi with a band of Italian volunteers, landed in Sicily, and proclaimed himself Dictator for the King of Sardinia. Garibaldi carried Palermo by storm, defeated the forces of Francis II., King of Naples, and then invading the mainland of the Kingdom of Naples, completely overthrew the Neapolitan army, and compelled the King of Naples to flee from his dominions. After the flight of Francis II., Victor Emmanuel entered Naples, and was acknowledged king.

48. In 1861 all the Italian States, excepting the Austrian province of Venetia, the Republic of San Marino, and the Papal dominions, were consolidated into one great State, designated "The Kingdom of Italy," the crown of which was bestowed on King Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia.

49. For a long time, the Greek people had suffered under the misrule of King Otho. Oppression followed oppression. The greater part of the uncultivated lands became the property of the crown. The peasants were required to pay a heavy

Peace of
Villa Franca.

Garibaldi's
invasions of
Sicily and
Naples.

Establish-
ment of the
Kingdom of
Italy.

Misrule of
King Otho.

land-tax, and manufactures were discouraged. The public money was squandered by the extravagant court; and the corrupt Ministry succeeded by bribes in having the Legislative Chambers filled with the supporters of the crown.

50. The growing discontent of the Greek people compelled King Otho to call on Canaris to form a new ministry; but when Canaris presented to the king a memorial asking for the dissolution of the fraudulently-elected chambers, the formation of a national guard, and the abolition of the censorship of the press, he was dismissed, and the corrupt ministry remained in power.

**Tyrannical
measures of
King Otho.**

**Insurrections
of Nauplia
and Syra.**

51. Soon afterward, King Otho caused more than 1000 of the popular party to be imprisoned, on a charge of plotting against the Government. The result of this outrageous act was the breaking out of a revolt at Nauplia, on the 12th of February, 1862. The city of Nauplia was besieged by the Government troops, and the insurgents, were forced to surrender on the 20th of April (1862). An amnesty was granted to all but nineteen of the insurgents, but this amnesty was afterwards violated, and many of the insurgents were thrown into prison. Another insurrection against the king had in the meantime broken out in the island of Syra. The Syrans were defeated in the naval battle of Thernia, but still they refused to submit. During the summer, the spirit of opposition to the Government manifested itself throughout Greece, while the tyranny of the king continually increased. Convicts were liberated from the prisons to plunder and keep down the populace; and the press was prohibited from publishing the sentiments of the people. The opposition to King Otho became so great that he was obliged to abdicate his throne, on the 30th of October, 1862, and to leave Greece a few days afterward. A provisional government, under Demetrius Bulgaris, was immediately installed; and in the following year (1863),

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Prince George of Denmark, was raised to the throne of Greece, with the title of George I., King of the Hellenes.

52. The Poles who had assembled at Warsaw on the 15th of October, 1861, to celebrate the memory of Kosciuszko, were prevented from doing so by the Russian authorities, who, the day before, had declared the city in a state of siege, and stationed large bodies of troops in the streets.

Tyrannical proceedings of the Russians at Warsaw.

The people nevertheless assembled in the churches peaceably, and when the churches were filled, the soldiers ordered them to disperse. As the Poles refused to obey, the Russian soldiers, by order of their commander, carried more than 2000 of them to the citadel. These tyrannical proceedings were followed by the arrest, imprisonment, banishment, and condemnation to death of the most prominent Poles.

53. In the summer of 1862, attempts were made by the Poles in Warsaw to assassinate the Archduke Constantine, Lieutenant of Poland, and brother of the Czar, Alexander II. The Archduke and the Archduke Count Wialopolski were severely wounded, but the assassins were arrested, condemned, and executed.

Attempted assassination of the Archduke Constantine.

54. In November, 1862, the Russian government determined to put the citizens of the towns in Poland who had manifested any opposition to its authority, into the Russian army as common soldiers, and to send them to perform military service in Siberia. This harsh measure roused the Poles to a spirit of resistance, and a general insurrection against Russian authority commenced throughout Poland. Small bands of insurgent Poles engaged in numerous conflicts with the Russian troops without decisive results. The revolt never arose above the character of a guerrilla war. This Polish rebellion at one time threatened complications dangerous to the general peace of Europe. England, France, Austria, and Sweden sympathized with the Poles, and asked of the Russian Emperor the amelioration of

Military Conscription

their condition. The insurrection continued for upwards of a year, and it was with great difficulty that the Russian government was enabled to suppress the rebellion in the summer of 1861. The Czar adopted harsh measures against the unfortunate Poles, many of whom were imprisoned, banished, or executed.

45. Russia enlarged her vast dominions by the conquest of Circassia in 1859, after a sanguinary struggle of thirty years, during which the Circassian tribes, led by the valiant and heroic warrior-prophet, Schamyl, defied all the efforts of the Russians, and fought bravely for their independence. The attention of the Russian government was not wholly absorbed by schemes of conquest and territorial aggrandizement; and the Czar Alexander II. immortalized his name by the emancipation of all the serfs or slaves in the Russian dominions. Of the thirty-eight millions of serfs in the Russian Empire at that time, sixteen millions were the property of the Russian crown. They were bought and sold with the lands on which they lived, and their condition was in all respects very degraded.

56. In February, 1861, the Czar issued a decree, promising the emancipation of the serfs two years after that date. In accordance with this decree, the Russian serfs received their freedom in February, 1863, and measures were taken for their improvement.

57. A Congress of European powers, assembled at London, in 1852, settled the succession to the throne of Denmark, and to the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, upon Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. On the death of King Christian VIII. of Denmark, in November, 1863, Prince Christian succeeded to the throne of Denmark and to the sovereignty of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; but the succession

Russian Con-
quest of Cir-
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The Danish
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wig-Holstein
Succession.

to the Duchies was claimed by Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, whose rights had been disregarded by the London Congress of European Powers. The people of Schleswig and Holstein, mostly Germans, for the most part sided with the Prince of Augustenburg, who also had the sympathies of the whole German nation.

58. In January, 1864, the Diet of the Germanic Confederation sent an army into Schleswig and Holstein, to support the claims of Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, and to prevent the incorporation of those German Duchies with the kingdom of Denmark; while Austria and Prussia, acting independently of the Federal Diet, also sent armies into the Duchies, and a war ensued between Denmark and the German Powers.

German-Federal, Austrian and Prussian armies in Holstein.

59. On the 4th of February, 1864, hostilities between the Danes and the Germans commenced at Missunde. The war was prosecuted with vigor on the part of the Germans, and, after a spirited campaign, the Danes were defeated. The most important event of the first campaign was the capture of Doppel by the Prussians on the 18th of

First campaign—Capture of Doppel.

1864. Although her army was defeated, Denmark still refused to accept peace by relinquishing the sovereignty of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; and Austria and Prussia undertook a second campaign to force Denmark to terms.

60. The Danish army still gallantly resisted, but in vain. The Austrians and Prussians were again victorious. The island of Alsen was captured by the Prussians, under Prince Frederic Charles, on the 1st of July, 1864, after a sanguinary

Second campaign—Capture of Alsen.

Active hostilities had lasted five months, and Denmark was now obliged to accept peace on such terms as Austria, Prussia, and the German Confederation chose.

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61. On the 30th of October, 1864, a treaty of peace was concluded at Vienna between Denmark and the German Powers, by which King Christian VIII. of Denmark relinquished all claims to the sovereignty of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein.

Peace of Vienna.

62. A dispute between Austria and Prussia concerning the sovereignty of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which those two great powers had wrested from Denmark in 1864, led to a short, but fierce and decisive, war, in the summer of 1866. Austria seemed disposed to support the claims of Prince Frederick of Augustenburg to the sovereignty of the Duchies; but, in October, 1865, Prussia declared that, according to the late treaty with Denmark, the sovereignty of the two Duchies had been yielded to Austria and Prussia jointly. Prussia considered the favor of Austria for Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, as indicating antagonism to the joint sovereignty of Austria and Prussia over the Duchies.

63. In the early part of 1866, Austria placed her army on a war-footing; and Prussia, suspecting the designs of Austria, began to arm in her defense. Austria pretended that her military preparations were with the view of protecting the Jews in Bohemia from persecution. The smaller German States endeavored to have the difficulty between the two great powers settled by the process of Arbitral Judgment, as provided for in the eleventh article of the Federal Pact; but Prussia insisted on a reorganization of the Germanic Confederation. At length, both Austria and Prussia agreed to disarm; but in the meantime, Prussia had entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Italy: and both Austria and Prussia continued their armaments.

64. The discussions of Prussia's demand for a reorgani-

zation of the Germanic Diet rendered an amicable adjustment of the dispute still more difficult; and at length, Prussia declared that if her demand were not complied with by the Diet she would seek redress through some other source.

Demand of Prussia—Prussian troops sent into Holstein.

The Austrian governor of Holstein had received orders to summon the Estates of the Duchy to consider their political relations. Prussia considered this as a violation of the stipulations of the treaty of 1864; and Count von Bismarck, the Prussian Prime-Minister, dispatched a military force into Holstein, and the Austrians withdrew from the Duchy.

65. A motion for the mobilization of the German-Federal army was, through the influence of Austria, adopted by the Federal Diet; whereupon Prussia declared the Diet dissolved, on account of the violation of the Germanic Constitution, withdrew from the Germanic Confederation, and called upon the German States to unite with

Mobilization of the German-Federal Army—Declaration of War.

her under a new constitution. On the 18th of June, 1866, Italy and Prussia formally and conjointly declared war against Austria, and immediately set their armies in motion.

66. Prussian troops had already occupied Hesse-Cassel, Hanover, and Saxony, because those States refused to

join with Prussia in a new confederation. The King of Saxony fled into Bohemia, destroying the bridges and tearing up the railroads behind him. Prussia vainly attempted a reconciliation with Hanover. Although successful in an action with the Prussians, the Hanoverian army, not receiving the expected assistance of the Bavarians, was obliged to surrender to the Prussians, whose numbers were continually increasing.

Flight of the King of Saxony.

67. The Bavarians, being several times disastrously defeated by the Prussians, were obliged to retire behind

Prussian Victories over the Magyar and Federal-German Armies.

the Main. The Prussians next defeated the Federal-German army at Aschaffenburg, and forced it to retire beyond the Main, where it effected a junction with the defeated Bavarians.

68. The Italian armies were at this time contending against the Austrians in Northern Italy. On the 24th of June (1866) was fought the battle of Custoza, in which the Italians were defeated and compelled to retreat. In July, the Italian army invaded Venetia, and forced the Austrians to fall back. General Garibaldi, with 12,000 Italians, was in the passes of the Tyrol, to the left of the main Italian army. The Italian right wing compelled the Austrians to retreat beyond Trent, in the Tyrol. The Italian right pursued the Austrians in their retreat through Venetia. While these movements were taking place on land, the Italian navy was defeated off the island of Lissa, by the Austrian fleet under Admiral Tegethoff.

69. In the meantime, the Prussians were conducting a brilliant campaign against the Austrians in Bohemia. These large Prussian armies, numbering together more than 200,000 men, had been assembled in June, 1866, for the invasion of the Austrian province of Bohemia. The 1st Prussian army, under Prince Frederic Charles, the nephew of King William of Prussia, advanced into Bohemia from Saxony; the 3d Prussian army, under General von Bitterfeld, joined the 1st Prussian army in Bohemia, before the close of June; and the two combined forced the Austrians to fall back. In the meantime, the 2d Prussian army, under the command of the Crown-Prince Frederic William of Prussia, passed the frontiers of Silesia, and advancing into Bohemia, defeated the Austrians on the 27th of June. (1866.)

70. After brilliant manœuvring, and a series of con-

Prussian invasion of Bohemia.

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fleets, in which the Prussians captured 15,000 prisoners
 and twenty-four pieces of artillery, the 1st
 and 3d Prussian armies became engaged with **Battle of**
 200,000 Austrians, under Field-Marshal Bene- **Sadowa.**
 dek, at nine o'clock in the morning of the 3d of July,
 1866, at the little village of Sadowa, near Königratz.
 The Prussians had held their ground firmly against the
 superior forces of the Austrians, when the arrival of the
 Crown-Prince with the 2d Prussian army, at one o'clock
 in the afternoon, decided the battle against the Austrians,
 who, after fighting bravely, were defeated with the loss of
 40,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, and 174
 pieces of cannon. The victorious Prussians lost 20,000
 men.

71. After the battle of Sadowa, the shattered Austrian
 forces retreated to Olmutz, in Moravia, pursued by the
 Prussians, who gained another victory on the **Peace of**
 22d of July. (1866.) The Austrian Govern- **Prague.**
 ment, seriously alarmed at the rapid advance
 of the triumphant Prussians, was now anxious for peace;
 and, through the mediation of France, an armistice was
 concluded on the 26th of July. On the 23d of August
 (1866) a treaty of peace was signed at Prague, by the
 plenipotentiaries of Austria and Prussia. By this treaty,
 Austria ceded Venetia to Italy, and consented to the for-
 mation of a new German Confederation, from which she
 was to be excluded; and the entire sovereignty of the
 Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein was surrendered to
 Prussia.

72. Prussia concluded treaties of peace, on advantage-
 ous terms for herself, with Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Baden,
 and Hesse-Darmstadt. An armistice had been **Prussian**
 proclaimed between Austria and Italy; and, **treaties with**
 on the 3d of October, 1866, a treaty of peace **other Ger-**
 between these two powers was signed at Vienna, Austria **man States.**
 surrendering Venetia to Italy. A confederation of North

German States, with Prussia at its head, was established; and Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt became independent sovereign states.

73. For some time, England had been agitated by the question of a more popular representation in Parliament.

**The Russell
Ministry—
Rejection of
the Reform
Bill.**

A reform bill, brought forward by the Ministry of Earl Russell, was, after much discussion, rejected by Parliament, on the 18th of June, 1866. This result produced much excitement and dissatisfaction throughout England. Immense reform demonstrations were made in various parts of the kingdom, and in some of the principal cities serious riots occurred.

74. The Whig Ministry of Earl Russell was succeeded by a Tory Cabinet, at the head of which was Earl Derby.

**The Derby
cabinet—
Passage of
the Reform
Bill.**

The Derby Ministry proposed very liberal measures of reform, which occupied the attention of Parliament for several months; and a reform bill greatly extending the right of suffrage by diminishing the property qualification of voters for members of Parliament, was finally passed by both Houses of Parliament, in August, 1867; and on the 17th of that month, it received the royal assent. The chief event connected with the foreign policy of England during Lord Derby's Administration was the advance of an expedition, under General Robert Napier, into Abyssinia, late in 1867; and the Abyssinian king, Theodore, who had refused to release his English captives, was defeated and killed in April, 1868.

75. In May, 1868, Earl Derby was succeeded as Prime-Minister of Great Britain by Mr. Disraeli, the chief leader

**The Disraeli
adminis-
tration—Re-
form Bill
for Ireland.**

of the Tory party in the House of Commons. A reform bill for Ireland, proposed by Mr. Gladstone, one of the Whig leaders in the House of Commons, was passed. The dis-establishment of the Church of England in Ireland was now agitated by the English Liberal party, headed by

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John Bright and William E. Gladstone. In August, 1868, the Ministry dissolved Parliament and ordered new elections, in order to test the sense of the nation.

76. The Parliamentary elections in November, 1868 resulted in overwhelming majorities for the candidates of the Liberal party, in consequence of which Mr. Disraeli and his colleagues resigned, early in December (1868); and a Whig Ministry, with Mr. Gladstone at its head, came into power. The great measure of Gladstone's

The Gladstone Ministry—Disestablishment of the Irish Church.

Administration was the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland. A disestablishment bill, which encountered the most strenuous opposition on the part of the aristocratic Tories in the House of Lords, was finally passed in August, 1869, and received the royal assent on the 26th of that month. The Irish land bill, which was designed to better the condition of the tenant population of Ireland, was also passed and approved by the sovereign. Thus were removed just causes of complaint on the part of the people of Ireland.

77. The most prominent events in the recent history of Spain were the successful war against Morocco, in 1859 and 1860: the sending of the allied English French and Spanish expedition against Mexico in December, 1861; and the war against Peru and Chili, in 1864 and 1865. The dissolute and tyrannical conduct of Queen Isabella II. made her detested by her subjects. Unsuccessful insurrections against her authority occurred at different times, and for several years, Spain was in a disturbed condition.

Spain's wars with Morocco, Peru, and Chili.

78. Isabella's extravagance and profusion to her favorites produced a growing discontent throughout the Spanish kingdom; and about the middle of September, 1868, while the queen was at San Sebastian, on her way to visit the Emperor Napoleon III., an insurrection, headed by

Spanish Revolution of September, 1868.

Generals Prim and Serrano, broke out. The revolt soon extended throughout the whole kingdom, and all the important towns declared against the queen. The army and navy joined the insurgents, who soon took possession of Madrid. The authority of Queen Isabella II. was now at an end, and she fled to France; and a Central Provisional Junta was formed to conduct public affairs. A bloody insurrection against Spanish authority now broke out in the island of Cuba, and continued several years.

79. In November, 1868, elections for a Constituent Cortes were held in Spain. This Cortes assembled soon afterwards, and, after long deliberation, adopted a new monarchical constitution, on the 1st of June, 1869; and General Serrano was appointed regent of the Spanish kingdom, until a king should be chosen. General Prim was placed at the head of the Ministry.

**A Constituent
Cortes—A
new Consti-
tution.**

80. In August, 1869, an insurrection of the Carlists broke out in the north-eastern part of Spain, but it was promptly suppressed by the Government troops. A Republican insurrection in the following month (September, 1869), was also crushed, after the cities of Valencia and Saragossa, where the Republicans had determined to make a desperate stand, were taken, after furious assaults and sanguinary fighting in the streets.

**Carlist and
Republican
insurrec-
tions.**

81. On the 17th of November, 1870, the Spanish Cortes, by a vote of 191 against 120, elected the Duke of Aosta, son of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy, King of Spain, with the title of Amadeus I. In the beginning of January, 1871, the newly-elected king made his entrance into Madrid, and took the oath to support the new constitution of the Spanish nation.

**The Duke of
Aosta Elected
King of
Spain.**

82. Strong opposition to the new king was manifested by the Spanish Republicans, and also by the Carlists; and

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General Prim, the ablest of Spanish statesmen, was bitterly hated by the Republicans, many of whom regarded him as the chief obstacle in the way of the establishment of a Spanish Republic. As General Prim was returning from the Cortes, on the night of the 27th of December, 1870, eight shots were fired at his carriage, by a party of assassins in the streets. The General was wounded in three places, and died on the 31st. The death of Prim produced a profound sensation of grief in Madrid, and throughout Spain; and great popular indignation was manifested against the assassins. The Cortes adopted a resolution in honor of the memory of the great statesman, declaring that the deceased deserved well of his country, and placed his family under the protection of the Spanish nation.

Assassination
of General
Prim.

83. At the beginning of July, 1870, General Prim, the Prime-Minister of Spain, with the consent of Serrano, the Regent of that country, invited Prince Leopold, of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a German prince, to become a candidate for the vacant throne of Spain. Regarding the candidature of this prince as a menace to France on the part of Spain and Prussia, the French Government violently opposed the project; and the Duke de Grammont, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, immediately informed the Governments of Spain and Prussia that France would not consent to the election of a Prussian prince to the throne of Spain.

Candidature
of Prince
Leopold of
Hohenzollern-
Sigmaringen.

84. On the 5th of July Emile Ollivier, the French Prime-Minister, held a consultation with the Duke de Grammont and Senor Olozaga, the Spanish ambassador at Paris, and the result was a sharp diplomatic note to Baron Werther, the Prussian ambassador to France. Immediately after receiving the note, Baron Werther started for Ems, to meet the king of Prussia. General Prim refused to abandon

Diplomatic
note to Prussia—Reply to
France.

the candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern until the Spanish Cortes should have decided on the question; and the Prussian Government, in reply to the diplomatic note from the French Cabinet, stated that Prussia did nothing towards obtaining the offer of the Spanish crown for Prince Leopold, that the consent of the King of Prussia to its acceptance would be given after the Spanish Cortes had acted on the question, and that if the Cortes should choose the prince to the vacant throne Prussia would support him.

85. At a council of Ministers in Madrid, the course of General Prim was unanimously approved, and the candidature of the Prince of Hohenzollern was accepted. It was believed in Paris that Prim and the Count von Bismarck, the shrewd and unprincipled Prime-Minister of Prussia, had for some time been secretly intriguing for the elevation of the Prince of Hohenzollern to the Spanish throne. Spain denied that she was influenced by Prussia in regard to the candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern; and Prussia declared herself innocent of all political intrigue, and asserted that she had no right nor inclination to dictate to Spain, or to the Prince of Hohenzollern. England, Austria, and Russia, made vain efforts for the preservation of peace.

86. France was now making the most earnest military preparations, and the Garde Mobile and the Garde Nationale were put upon a war footing. The greatest activity prevailed at Toulon, Cherbourg, and other French ports; and troops were being rapidly moved eastward toward the Rhine. The Imperial Guards were placed under the command of Marshal Bazaine; and Marshal MacMahon was ordered home from Algeria, to take command of the French army which was to operate on the Rhine. Marshal Canrobert and Generals Faily and Frossard were also appointed to important commands.

Course of
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Military prep-
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87. On the 12th of July (1870), Prince Leopold, of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, declining to be the cause of a European war, formerly withdrew as a candidate for the Spanish throne. Not satisfied with the conduct of the King of Prussia in sanctioning the withdrawal of the candidacy of Prince Leopold as head of the Hohenzollern family, the French Government demanded that he should do it as King of Prussia. But King William declined to do this, as he regarded such a step as inconsistent with the dignity to which Prussia was entitled as one of the first class powers of the world. Prussian troops were now also hurried to the Rhine.

Formal withdrawal of Prince Leopold—Demand of France.

88. On the 14th of July (1870) Count Benedetti, the French ambassador to Prussia, demanded an audience of King William, at Ems, for the purpose of securing the perpetual renunciation of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, as a candidate for the throne of Spain; but as the king refused to receive him he started for Paris; and on the following day (July 15th, 1870) the French Corps Legislatif declared war against Prussia.

Diplomatic of the French Ambassador.

89. Both the French and the Prussian people were enthusiastic in support of their respective governments. All the German States rallied to the aid of Prussia, and the immediate mobilization of the whole Prussian army was ordered. The Crown-Prince Frederic William of Prussia was placed in command of the South German armies, while his cousin, Prince Frederic Charles, was appointed to take command of the forces of North Germany. Although King William of Prussia was the nominal commander-in-chief of the German armies, the direction of the military operations was in the hands of the skilful general, Count von Moltke. After concentrating between Mayence and Coblenz, the Prussian forces were moved to the French frontier.

The Prussian Armies.

90. After concentrating in the vicinity of Nancy, Metz, and Thionville, the French forces were moved forward to the German frontier. In the latter part of July, the Emperor Napoleon III. left Paris for the seat of war, and took the chief command of the French armies. The principal French armies were the army of the Moselle, under Marshal Bazaine, in the neighborhood of Metz and Thionville, and the army of the Rhine, under Marshal MacMahon, in the vicinity of Strasburg. There was also a large army of reserves, under Marshal Canrobert, at Chalons-sur-Marne.

**The French
armies.**

91. Toward the end of July, the German troops, 700,000 in number, occupied a line along the French frontier, extending from the Moselle to the Rhine. The French troops, 350,000 in number, were assembled at various points along the frontier, directly opposite the Prussian line. Skirmishes occurred at Saarbrücken, on the 30th of July and on the 1st of August, in which the French were repulsed, but on the 2d of August, the town was captured by the French, after a sharp fight.

**Numerical
strength of
the belligerent
forces.**

92. On the 4th of August, the frontier town of Weissenbourg was captured by a part of the Prussian army under the Crown-Prince Frederic William, after a spirited engagement, in which the French General, Douay, was killed, and 800 French troops were made prisoners by the Prussians. The Prussian victory at Weissenbourg was followed by a general advance of the whole Prussian line into France, and the Count von Moltke immediately assumed an offensive attitude.

**Battle of
Weissen-
bourg—Ad-
vance of the
Prussian
line.**

93. On the 6th of August was fought the battle of Woerth or Froeschwiller, in which the Crown-Prince of Prussia, with a large force of Prussians and Bavarians, defeated the French under Marshal MacMahon, separated them from the

**Battle of
Woerth—Bat-
tle of For-
bach.**

remainder of the French army, and made 4,000 of them prisoners. The total French loss was 11,000 men, and the Prussian loss 3,500. On the very day of the battle of Woerth, (August 6, 1870), the Prussian right, under General von Steinmetz, recaptured Saarbrücken, carried the heights of Spicheren after a severe struggle, and completely defeated the French under General Frossard in the battle of Forbach, and afterwards compelled them to evacuate Forbach, St. Avold, and Thionville, and took 8,000 of them prisoners. The whole French line fell back on Metz, followed by the Prussians.

94. When intelligence of the defeats of the French arms at Weissenbourg, Woerth, and Forbach reached Paris, the inhabitants of that proud capital manifested the most intense indignation, and the greatest excitement and consternation prevailed; and it was feared that a sudden revolution would take place, and result in the overthrow of the Bonaparte dynasty.

Consternation and indignation in Paris.

95. The Prussian right and centre, under General von Steinmetz and Prince Frederic Charles, now advanced on Metz, and 60,000 South German troops, under General von Werder, laid siege to Strasburg. At the same time, the Prussian left, under the Crown Prince, followed the shattered forces of Marshal MacMahon, in the direction of Nancy. On the 13th of August, MacMahon evacuated Nancy, which was immediately taken possession of by the victorious forces of the Crown Prince, MacMahon retreating to Chalons-sur-Marne.

Advance of the Prussians in France.

96. After the 1st and 2d Prussian armies had reached the Moselle, the French army under Marshal Bazaine at Metz, attempted to retreat from that strong fortress, on the 14th of August, but was met and defeated at Courcelles, by the 1st Prussian army, under General von Steinmetz, and driven back with heavy loss. On the following day, (August 15,

Movements near Metz.

1870), the 1st Prussian army crossed the Moselle between Metz and Thionville, to cut off Bazaine's retreat to Paris by the northern road to Verdun, while the 2d Prussian army, which had already passed the Moselle south of Metz, seized the southern road. On the 16th, a fierce and bloody battle was fought at Vionville between Metz and Verdun, in which the French were defeated by the 2d Prussian army under Prince Frederic Charles. Bazaine's army was now in a perilous situation. On the 17th, the Prussians hurried the remainder of their corps across the Moselle for the final struggle. On the 18th, (August, 1870), occurred the sanguinary battle of Gravelotte, or Rezonville, west of Metz, which raged for nine hours, and in which Marshal Bazaine's army was again most disastrously defeated. The carnage of both sides was frightful. The battle-field and neighboring villages were strewn with dead. During this week of battles, the French lost 50,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The victorious Prussians also lost heavily. Thus every attempt at retreat which Bazaine made was defeated. He was now blockaded in the vicinity of Metz, with no hope whatever of extricating himself from his perilous position. All communication between him and Paris was severed, and an attempt to move in any direction would result in another disastrous defeat of his army.

97, While the 1st and 2d Prussian armies, under General von Steinmetz and Prince Frederic Charles, were holding Bazaine fast at Metz, the Crown-Prince of Prussia, with the 3d Prussian army, 200,000 strong, having passed Metz on the south, was rapidly advancing toward Paris by way of Chalons-sur-Marne. MacMahon with his defeated and shattered forces retreating before him. King William at length removed his head-quarters from the Prussian armies near Metz to Bar-le-Duc, and then accompanied the Crown-Prince on his march toward Paris. In

Advance of
the Crown-
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the meantime, a sharp conflict occurred at Verdun, between a French detachment and 10,000 German troops under the command of the Crown-Prince of Saxony; and Vitry-le-Français was captured by the Prussians, after a spirited engagement.

98. At length, when MacMahon, after having evacuated Chalons-sur Marne, on the 23d of August, and after being reinforced, attempted to fly to the relief of Bazaine near Metz, the Prussian Crown-Prince, suddenly relinquishing his march toward the French capital, followed his antagonist northward, toward the frontier of Belgium. MacMahon's army was also threatened by the forces of Prince Frederic Charles. There was heavy skirmishing on the 28th and 29th of August, between the armies of MacMahon and the Crown-Prince. On the 30th (August, 1870) MacMahon made a movement toward Montmedy, but his army was attacked at Beaumont, and, after a tremendous conflict, utterly defeated and driven across the Meuse, toward the Belgian frontier, by the Prussian forces under the Crown-Prince. The Prussians captured twelve cannon and thousands of prisoners. During the night both the French and Prussian armies received large reinforcements; and on the following day (August 31, 1870) the battle was renewed, and, after the most desperate fighting, the French were again disastrously defeated, and driven to Sedan. At daylight on the 1st of September, 1870, MacMahon's army, which was now reinforced, occupied a strong elevated position around the fortified town of Sedan, near the Belgian frontier. About five o'clock in the morning the Prussians commenced the great battle of Sedan by simultaneous attacks on the French front and left flank. During the great part of the forenoon the fighting was confined mainly to the artillery of both armies; but at length the firing of musketry became quite lively. About noon the Prussian infantry made a

Battle of
Beaumont
and Sedan.

furious attempt to break the French centre, but after the most desperate fighting they were repulsed. Afterwards a simultaneous movement was made along the whole line of the Prussians, their infantry charging the French guns. After the French cuirassiers had failed in a charge on the Prussian skirmishers at the La Givonne hills, the French infantry made a desperate assault, but they also met with a disastrous repulse. At three o'clock the French line, which had thus far gallantly withstood the Prussian assaults, wavered, and soon afterwards broke. The battle now became a rout. The victorious Prussians hotly pursued the French troops, who, leaving everything behind them, were fleeing in dismay from the field, and throwing away their arms. The pursuing Prussians used the bayonet with terrible effect, as they were determined to cut off the French retreat towards Belgium. Night put an end to the rout and pursuit, and the broken hosts of the French army took refuge in the fortress of Sedan. The Prussians had won a brilliant victory, but at the cost of 30,000 men in killed and wounded. The defeated French army had lost 20,000 men. On the 31st of August, and the 1st of September (1870) Marshal Bazaine made another desperate effort to escape from Metz, but he was again defeated by Prince Frederic Charles, and driven back into the fortress.

99. On the 2d September, 1870, the French army under Marshal MacMahon, then numbering 120,000 men, and being entirely surrounded at Sedan, without any hope of escape whatever, was surrendered prisoners of war to King William of Prussia, by General Wimpffen instead of Marshal MacMahon, who was severely wounded. The Emperor Napoleon III., who had been with MacMahon at Sedan, but who then held no command in the army, surrendered himself a prisoner to King William. In his letter to the King of Prussia, proposing surrender, the French

**Surrender of
MacMahon's
army—Surrender of
Napoleon III.**

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Emperor said, "As I cannot die at the head of my army, I come to lay my sword at the feet of your majesty." The King of Prussia treated his imperial captive with great courtesy and generosity, and allotted to him the chateau of Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel, for a residence during his captivity in Germany. Thus, five weeks after the commencement of hostilities at Saarbrücken, the military power of France was thoroughly broken. The imperial career of Napoleon III. had now ended, and the Second French Empire had received its death-blow.

100. When intelligence of the capitulation of MacMahon's army at Sedan and the surrender of the Emperor spread through Paris, the excitement of the people of that city became almost indescribable. The streets were filled with excited crowds, who demanded the dethronement of the Bonaparte dynasty and the establishment

**The Paris
revolution of
September—
France pro-
claimed a
Republic.**

of a new French Republic. A stormy scene took place in the Corps Legislatif. On Sunday, September 4th, 1870, the French capital was in revolution. The popular agitation gradually became greater, and at length unparalleled excitement prevailed throughout the city. The Place de la Concorde was one mass of human beings, and the Boulevards were impassable, on account of the immense crowds assembled there. The National Guards, however, succeeded in preserving order. The soldiers and National Guards fraternized with the people, singing the "Marseillaise" and wildly shouting "Vive la République!" The Corps Legislatif was surrounded by hundreds and thousands of excited citizens, who demanded the deposition of the Bonapartes and the establishment of a republic. The Senate was suppressed, and the Corps Legislatif dissolved, after proclaiming, by unanimous vote, that the Bonaparte dynasty had forfeited the crown of France. The Republican members of the Corps Legislatif then proceeded to the Hotel de Ville, where they proclaimed

France a Republic. A provisional government, entitled "The Government of National Defense," was then formed, consisting of eleven persons,—namely, Emanuel Arago, Emanuel Cremieux, Jules Favre, Jules Ferry, Jules Simon, Leon Gambetta, Garnier Pages, Ernest Picard, Henri Rochefort, Glais Bizoin, and Eugene Pelletan, all representatives of Paris. The Parisians were wild with joy at the dethronement of the Emperor, and the inauguration of the new Republic. They embraced each other and wept for joy. The Paris mob, which again ruled supreme, was destroying in spite and fury. All signs having imperial arms and medals were torn down. The mob entered the great palace of the Tuileries, tore down the throne, destroyed everything marked with the imperial insignia, and carried away and cast into the river Seine, all the busts, statues, and pictures of the Bonaparte family. On the following day (September 5, 1870), the Provisional Government issued a proclamation, announcing that a Republic had been proclaimed at the Hotel de Ville. The Provisional Government also decreed that the Corps Legislatif was dissolved and the Senate abolished, and accorded full amnesty for all political crimes and offenses against the Empire. This sudden and remarkable revolution was accomplished without the sacrifice of a single life. The greatest enthusiasm prevailed throughout France, and the people of the departments everywhere accepted the Republic. The Empress Eugenie had fled from Paris and gone to England. The Government of the United States promptly recognized the new French Republic.

191. After the surrender of MacMahon's army and of the Emperor Napoleon at Sedan, the Crown Princes of Prussia and Saxony, accompanied by King William, the Count von Moltke, and the Count von Bismarck, marched against Paris, at the head of 400,000 German troops. The fortified town

**Advance of
the Germans
on Paris.**

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of Laon surrendered to the Germans on the 10th of September, but the citadel was vigorously blown up, killing several hundred French and German soldiers. The immense German armies, upon their arrival before Paris, about the middle of September, prepared for the prosecution of a vigorous siege of that great capital.

102. After the establishment of the Government of National Defence in Paris, on the 4th of September, energetic efforts on the part of France were made for peace with Germany. The distinguished Jules Favre, the new French Minister of

Unsuccessful
attempts at
Peace.

Foreign Affairs, visited Count von Bismarck, and endeavored to procure a cessation of hostilities and the conclusion of a treaty of peace. Favre offered many humiliating concessions to Germany; but Bismarck's harsh demand that the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine should be ceded to Germany, and the non-existence of a permanent government in France, rendered the efforts at peace abortive; and thus this sanguinary war was left to continue.

103. Soon after the German armies had entered France, 60,000 South German troops, under General von Werder, invested Strasburg, the chief city of the French province of Alsace, which was garrisoned by about 20,000 French troops,

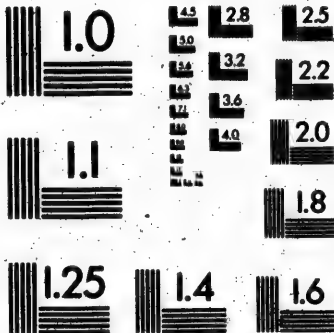
Siege and
capture of
Strasburg.

under General Uhrich. Although the city suffered heavily from the fierce bombardments which the besieging Germans opened upon it, being often on fire in different places and a great part of it destroyed, the garrison held out heroically for two months, refusing repeated demands for surrender, and making many desperate sorties. Finally, on the 27th of September (1870), after the garrison and the inhabitants had suffered from famine, and any further defence being impossible, General Uhrich surrendered the city of Strasburg and its garrison, then consisting of 17,000 men, to General von Werder. The city was



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immediately occupied by the conquering Germans, and placed under German rule.

104. On the 16th of September (1870), the German armies, half a million strong, began the investment of Paris, and, on the same day, the city was declared in a state of siege. The headquarters of King William were established at Ferrières, of the Crown-Prince of Prussia at Versailles, and of the Crown-Prince of Saxony at Grand Tremblay. The French capital was garrisoned by about 230,000 troops under the command of General Trochu. The Parisians were determined to defend their city to the last extremity, resolving to emulate Metz and Strasburg. Before the siege had commenced, the city had been supplied with immense stores of provisions. Paris, surrounded by a strong wall (the enceinte), and by numerous fortifications, was impregnable to attack, and could only be conquered by starvation. The principal forts defending the city,—namely Valerian, d' Issy, Vanvres, Montrouge, Bicetre, Noisy, and Rosny,—were strongly garrisoned. Numerous engagements of an unimportant character occurred around Paris, during the latter part of September and throughout October. On the 30th of September, a severe conflict took place between the French troops of the line and the Prussians, resulting in the repulse of the French, who took refuge behind the forts. On the 22d of October, Paris was completely surrounded by the German army of investment, about 300,000 strong, and the German military authorities permitted no person whatever to enter or leave the beleaguered capital. All communication between Paris and the outside world was cut off, except by means of balloons. Before Paris had been completely surrounded by the besieging Germans, some of the members of the French Provisional Government established themselves at Tours, while the others remained in the besieged capital. Communication between Paris and Tours was kept up by the dangerous service of balloons.

**Investment
and siege of
Paris.**

105. In the meantime, a new French army of more than 100,000 men had been formed on the Loire. A portion of this army was defeated by a German force, under General Von Der Tann, near Orleans, on the 10th of October. The French fled in disorder, leaving 10,000 prisoners in the hands of the victorious Germans. On the 12th of October, the French army of the Loire was defeated at Orleans, after nine hours' fighting. The Prussians took Orleans by storm, and captured 10,000 prisoners.

German victories at Orleans.

106. On the 17th of October, Soissons capitulated to the Germans commanded by the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, after an obstinate contest of four days, and the most sanguinary fighting in the streets, no quarter being shown to the wounded, the women from the houses hurling missiles upon the heads of the Germans, and much of the city being destroyed.

Capture of Soissons.

107. After many unsuccessful sorties, and when famine had begun to threaten the army and citizens of Metz with its horrors, Marshal Bazaine surrendered the city of Metz, one of the most strongly-fortified places in the world, together with his army, then consisting of 173,000 men, and all his artillery, small arms, and ammunition, to Prince Frederic Charles, on the 27th of October. This disgraceful capitulation produced the most intense indignation throughout France. Bazaine, who had never recognized the Republic, was suspected of treachery by his countrymen; and the Government of National Defense ordered the arrest of the Marshal wherever found in France. King William created the Crown-Prince of Prussia and Prince Frederic Charles Field-Marshal. This was the first instance of any such dignity being conferred upon any prince of the House of Hohenzollern.

Bazaine's surrender of Metz.

108. In the latter part of October and in the begin-

ning of November (1870), in consequence of the fall of Metz, renewed efforts were made on the part of France for peace. Bismarck's firm refusal to consent to an armistice on any other basis than the cession of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, and his rejection of the proposition for the revictualling of Paris as a condition of the proposed armistice, rendered all efforts at an armistice, as the forerunner of a treaty of peace, fruitless, and both parties determined upon the continuation of the terrible struggle.

Failure of renewed attempts at peace.
 109. After the German victories near and at Orleans, in October, the French Army of the Loire was gradually augmenting in numerical strength. On the 9th of November, after a severe battle of two days, the Army of the Loire, 150,000 strong, under the command of General d'Aurelles de Paladines, inflicted a disastrous defeat on the German force commanded by General Von Der Tann, near Orleans, and recaptured that city. The German loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was 12,000 men. Following up his victory, Paladines again defeated Von Der Tann at Arthenay, the next day (November 10, 1870). The defeated and shattered forces of Von Der Tann retreated hastily in the direction of Paris.

Victories of the French Army of the Loire near Orleans.
 110. On the 10th of November, the town of Dijon, in Eastern France, which had in the meantime fallen into the hands of the Prussians, was recaptured by the French Army of the East; but on the 16th of the same month (November, 1870), Dijon was reoccupied by the Prussians in heavy force. On the 25th of November, Thionville surrendered to the Prussians, after a fierce bombardment, by which a great part of that town was reduced to ashes. Two days later (November 27, 1870), a French force was badly beaten at Amiens, by the Prussians, under General Manteuffel, and driven toward Arras with severe loss.

Operations at Dijon—Capture of Thionville.

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111. On the 28th of November, after five days' fighting, in the vicinity of Orleans, between the French Army of the Loire, and the Germans, under the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg, the design of Paladines to advance to the relief of Paris was frustrated. On the 4th of December, after four days' heavy fighting near Orleans, the Army of the Loire suffered a disastrous defeat from the German armies, commanded by Prince Frederic Charles and the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg. The Germans took 10,000 prisoners and re-occupied Orleans, which had been evacuated by the French. The Army of the Loire retreated southward, toward Blois, closely pursued by the victorious forces of Prince Frederic Charles. On the 10th of December, after three days' fighting in the vicinity of Meung, eleven miles south-west of Orleans, the Army of the Loire was defeated by the Germans, under the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg. On the 14th of December, after four days' more fighting around Beaugency, the Army of the Loire retired to Blois and Tours. General d'Aurelles de Paladines now resigned his command, and retired to his estate. The French Provisional Government had already left Tours, and been installed at Bordeaux.

*Defeat of
the French
Army of the
Loire near
Orleans.*

112. On the 28th, 29th, and 30th of November, 1870, General Trochu made sorties from Paris on a large scale, but his assaults were repulsed by the Germans, and his troops were driven behind the fortifications of the city. On the 2d of December, a French force of 150,000 men, under General Ducrot, having been sent out of Paris by General Trochu on the preceding day, made a desperate attempt to force the German line of investment, and partially succeeded, compelling the Saxons and Wurtembergers, 100,000 in number, to fall back, after a sanguinary conflict of seven hours. Several days afterward, Ducrot's force was compelled to retire back into Paris. During the Christmas

*Grand sorties
from Paris.*

nolidays, the weather around Paris was intensely cold, and thousands of French and German soldiers were frozen to death.

113. On the 14th of December, the fortress of Pfalz-burg, in the Vosges Mountains, surrendered uncondition-ally to the Germans, who had laid siege to the place soon after the battle of Woerth. **Capture of Pfalz-burg—** On the following day (December 15, 1870) **Capture of Montmedy.** Montmedy, near the Belgian frontier, also capitulated to a German besieging force.

114. For several months, negotiations had been in progress for a union of the South German States—namely, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt—with the North German Con-federation. These negotiations were success-fully completed in the early part of December, 1870; and, on the 9th of that month, the

Restoration of the Ger-man Empire—King Wil-liam Em-peror. King of Prussia, with the desire of the German princes and people, accepted the title of Emperor of Germany. On the 19th of January, 1871, in the presence of all the German princes, in the Hall of Mirrors, at Versailles in France, King William of Prussia was formally proclaimed Emperor of Germany. Thus the long aspirations and dreams of the German people for the unity of their Fatherland were finally realized in the restoration of the German Empire, which had been dissolved in 1806, by the action of Napoleon I.

115. Having grown impatient at the lengthy duration of the siege of Paris, the Germans determined to compel the devoted capital to surrender by assault and bombardment. In the latter part of December, 1870, the besiegers opened a heavy bombardment on Fort Avron, which was in consequence evacuated by its French garrison, and immediately occu-pied by German troops. (December 30, 1870.) The forts on the east and south sides of Paris were so vigorously

Bombard-ment of Paris.

bombarded that some of them—Forts Noisy, Rosny, d'Issy, and Vanvres—were at length silenced, but they again resumed fire, and replied as vigorously to the fire from the German batteries. Both the French and German armies suffered much from the severity of the season. Much damage was done to the suburban villages of Paris by the heavy fire from the German batteries; but the Parisians although suffering greatly from the inconveniences and miseries of the siege, were as determined as ever upon defense. Thousands of balls from the German guns fell in the suburbs of Paris, creating havoc in all directions, killing men, women, and children, in the streets and houses, striking ambulances, hospitals, museums, public libraries, churches, school-houses, and dwellings, and setting many portions of the city on fire. The horrors of the bombardment inflamed the Parisians with rage, and made them more resolute than ever in their intention to resist to the utmost. On the 9th of January, 1871, a severe action occurred at the village of Clamart, in which the Prussians were victorious. On the 10th of January, General Trochu was repulsed in a sally on the north side of Paris, from St. Denis; and on the 11th, an unsuccessful sortie was made on the south side, between Forts Vanvres and Montrouge. On the 19th of January, a great sortie was made from Forts Valerien, by General Trochu, but he was repulsed, with the loss of 3,000 men.

116. The French army of the Loire, under General Chanzy, assumed the offensive, about the beginning of January, 1871, and the Germans, under Prince Frederic Charles, were concentrating at Orleans, with the view of preventing Chanzy's army from advancing to the relief of Paris.

**The army of
the Loire—
Battles of
Vendôme and
Le Mans.**

A severe engagement occurred near Vendôme, on the 6th of January, between the army of the Loire and the forces under Prince Frederic Charles, which resulted in the defeat of the French, who were in consequence compelled

to retreat westward, closely pursued by the Germans. After a series of spirited actions, Chanzy's army was driven to Demans, where a general battle was fought on the 11th of January. The German army, under Prince Frederic Charles, attacked the army of the Loire along the whole line, carried all the French positions, occupied Le Mans, and then went in hot pursuit of the defeated and fleeing hosts of General Chanzy. On the 15th (January, 1871) another battle took place, which ended in another defeat for Chanzy, who then continued his retreat westward to Laval. The loss of the Germans in these battles was only 3,500 men, while they made 22,000 prisoners. The army of the Loire was now thoroughly crippled, and the last hope of the French for the relief of their capital had vanished.

117. In the meantime, there had been great activity in the movements of the French army of the North, commanded by General Faidherbe, which was endeavoring to coöperate with the army of the Loire, in its efforts to raise the siege of Paris. On the 23d of December, 1870, Faidherbe's army, then numbering 60,000 men, was defeated and routed near Amiens, by the Germans under General Manteuffel. At length, Faidherbe's army met with some successes, which led to the concentration of the German forces in the North of France under General Manteuffel. On the 8d of January, 1871, the French army of the North was repulsed in an attack upon a portion of General Manteuffel's army at Bapaume. After the battle, Faidherbe's army hastily retreated, and was vigorously pursued by the German cavalry. On the 19th of January, 1871, a severe battle was fought at St. Quentin, in which Faidherbe's army was defeated, by the Germans, who lost over 8000 men, but captured 4000 prisoners. Faidherbe then retreated northward, and near the close of January he reached Dunkirk.

118. At the close of December, 1870, a French army

of more than 100,000 men, under General Bourbaki, moved into Eastern France, to operate against the Germans under General Von Werder, in the vicinity of Belfort. **Battle at Belfort.** The Germans laid siege.

to Belfort, but were repulsed in an assault upon the fortifications of the town. On the 10th of January, 1871, General von Werder took Viller Exel by storm, and repulsed the French in their attempts to recapture the place. On the 17th of January, after three days of severe fighting at Belfort, the French army of the East, under General Bourbaki, met with a disastrous repulse, and, after a loss of 8,000 men, was compelled to retreat, closely pursued by the victorious Germans. In a series of skirmishes with the Prussians, Bourbaki's army was successful. General Manteuffel, who was now placed in chief command of the German armies in Eastern France, prepared to bring about the destruction of the French army of the East. Bourbaki's defeated and shattered army retreated to Besancon, closely pursued by Manteuffel's victorious forces. These disasters to the French arms had such an effect upon the mind of General Bourbaki, that he attempted suicide. After a series of engagements, lasting three days, and ending on the 1st of February, on the Swiss frontier, Manteuffel captured 15,000 prisoners, and compelled Bourbaki's army, 80,000 strong, to retreat into Switzerland.

119. On the 22d of January, 1871, the Prussians in large force attacked Dijon, but they were disastrously repulsed, after a severe battle of five hours, and **Battle of Dijon—Siege and capture of Longwy.** compelled to retreat. By the 20th of January, the town of Longwy, near the Belgian frontier, had been completely invested by a Prussian force. The French garrison made two successful sorties, dislodged the Prussians, and silenced their batteries; but after a furious assault and bombardment, Longwy, with its garrison of 4,000 French troops, fell into the hands of the Prussians on the 25th of January.

120. At length, after the French capital had suffered terribly from the fierce bombardment by the Germans, and after famine had wrought its horrors upon the inhabitants of the beleaguered city, the besieged made proposals of surrender to the besiegers; and on the 27th of January, 1871, the articles of capitulation were signed by which the city of Paris was surrendered to the Germans, and its garrison of 185,000 men, under General Trochu, became prisoners of war. The Germans levied a contribution of 53,000,000 francs upon the conquered city; and the forts around the city were immediately occupied by German garrisons. Measures were taken for the revictualling of the city under German supervision. For several weeks after the surrender, hundreds of Parisians died daily from starvation.

121. The fall of Paris opened the eyes of the French Government and people to the hopelessness and folly of resistance to the gigantic power of Germany, and made them anxious for the speedy conclusion of peace. An armistice of three weeks was signed at Versailles, on the 28th of January, by Jules Favre on the part of the French Republic, and by Prince Bismarck on the part of the German Empire, in order to allow the French people to elect representatives to a National Assembly, which should convene at Bordeaux, to consider and ratify a treaty of peace with Germany. Each of the different parties in France,—the Legitimists, the Orleanists, the Bonapartists, and the Republicans,—made great efforts for success in the election for deputies to the proposed National Assembly. The elections took place on the 8th of February, and resulted in the choice mostly of Orleanists and Republicans. The National Assembly convened at Bordeaux on the 15th of February, 1871, and upon its organization unanimously chose Louis Adolphe Thiers, the distinguished historian, orator and statesman, to the office of President of the

**Surrender of
Paris.**

**An armistice
—a French
National As-
sembly.**

French Republic, and took measures for the speedy restoration of peace.

122. After much negotiation, the armistice having been in the meantime extended one week, a preliminary treaty of peace was signed at Paris, on the 25th of February, 1871, by President Thiers and Jules Favre on the part of the French Republic, and by Prince Bismarck on the part of the German Empire. France was required to cede to Germany nearly the whole of Alsace, including Strasburg, and one-fifth of Lorraine, including Metz; and pay five milliards of francs (equal to one thousand million dollars), in three years, as indemnity for the losses sustained by Germany in the war; a large portion of the German army was to garrison a number of the French fortresses until the entire indemnity was paid, the expense of supporting this army of occupation to be paid by France; and the Emperor William and a portion of the German army were to enter Paris, and occupy the Champs Elysees. On the 1st of March, 1871, the National Assembly at Bordeaux, by a large majority, ratified these terms of peace, so harsh and humiliating to France, and the great Franco-German War ended.

123. On the 1st of March, 1871, the Emperor William, of Germany, and 30,000 German troops made their grand triumphal entry into the French capital. Contrary to the expectations of many, no acts of violence were committed toward them, a few of the inhabitants of the city appearing in the streets. The Germans evacuated Paris two days afterward (March 3, 1871), and on the 14th, the Emperor William started for Berlin, where he arrived on the 17th March, 1871. The ex-Emperor Napoleon was released from his captivity at Wilhelmshöhe by the German Government, on the 6th March, whereupon he left Germany, and retired to Chiselhurst, in England.

Preliminary
peace of
Paris.

German tri-
umphal entry
into Paris—
release of
Napoleon.

where he died on the 9th of January, 1873. The war just closed was the greatest of modern times. During the six months that military operations were in progress, nearly half a million human lives were sacrificed. The successes of Germany in this mighty conflict were among the most remarkable in the annals of War: her armies were victorious in nearly every encounter; three of the most strongly-fortified places in the world yielded to the power of her arms; three of the largest armies ever raised were compelled to lay down their arms; the proudest capital in the world was occupied by her warriors; and the once proudest monarch in Europe was made a captive. In all, 700,000 French soldiers were made prisoners during the war. The pride of France was humbled, and her sword broken.

124. On the 10th of May, 1871, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Frankfort-on-the-Main, by Jules Favre and Ponroy Quartier on the part of France, and by Prince Bismarck on the part of Germany. Bismarck agreed to a reduction of the war indemnity to be paid by France to Germany, from five milliards of francs to four and a half milliards. The French were required to restore all the German ships captured during the war, or to refund their value in cash in cases in which the vessels were sold. According to this treaty, the Germans were only to hold Belfort, Nancy, and Longwy, as hostages until the fulfilment of its conditions. This treaty was speedily ratified by the Governments of France and Germany, whereupon the greater part of the German Army of Occupation evacuated France, and the French prisoners in Germany were returned to France as speedily as the railroads could transport them.

125. In 1862, General Garibaldi, at the head of a band of Italian volunteers, attempted a descent upon the Papal territories, with the view of uniting Rome with the kingdom of Italy; but he was met and defeated at Aspromonte, by the troops of

Garibaldi's
movement on
Rome in
1862.

King Victor Emmanuel, on the 29th of August, 1862, Garibaldi was kept prisoner for several months.

126. In September, 1864, a treaty was concluded between France and Italy, by which King Victor Emmanuel was bound to prevent any violent attempt on the dominions of the Pope. In the autumn of 1867, Garibaldi made another movement against Rome, but he was again unsuccessful, and sent as a prisoner to the island of Caprera.

The Treaty of September, 1864—Garibaldi's movement in 1867.

127. When the Second French Empire had received its death-blow by the catastrophe of Sedan, at the beginning of September, 1870, the King of Italy felt

The Italian movement on Rome in September, 1870.

himself freed from all obligations entered into with Napoleon III. At the same time, there was much political agitation in Italy, and fears of a republican rising were entertained by the Italian Government. When intelligence of the Paris Revolution of September 4th, 1870, and the proclamation of the Third French Republic, reached Florence, King Victor Emmanuel and his Cabinet resolved upon the military occupation of Rome, and the annexation of the Papal territory to the Kingdom of Italy. The King of Italy was compelled to take this step by the ardent wishes of his subjects, and any refusal or delay on his part to comply with their wishes would have cost him his crown. The people of the Pontifical States also petitioned the King of Italy to occupy Rome. On the 12th of September, 1870, an Italian army of 4000 men, under General Cadorna, marched into the Papal territory. General Cadorna issued a proclamation to the Roman people, assuring them that he did not bring war to them, but peace and order, and that the independence of the Holy See would not be molested. There was great enthusiasm among the Italian troops and people; and, as the troops advanced toward Rome, the people everywhere fraternized with them, and received them with acclamations. The ultimatum of the

declared a
Republic.

in his determination to abdicate the throne. When it became known that King Amadeus would certainly resign his crown, groups of people assembled in Madrid, and there were some attempts to create a disturbance; but these demonstrations were promptly suppressed, and the crowds were dispersed without any conflicts. The Congress, or lower branch of the Cortes, adopted a proposition that the President of that branch and fifty deputies should constitute a Permanent Committee. The Cortes assembled at a late hour on February 11th, 1873, and the formal message of the king's abdication was read in each chamber separately, but upon the conclusion of the reading the Senate and the Congress met together in one chamber, and constituted themselves the Sovereign Cortes of Spain. Senor Rivero, the President of the Congress, being called to the chair, declared himself ready to answer for the preservation of order, and for the

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Welcomed by the Romans as liberators.

plebiscite was taken in Rome a few days afterward, resulting in a unanimous vote in favor of the annexation of the Eternal City to the Kingdom of Italy. All political prisoners in the Papal territories were immediately set free, and a provisional government was organized by General Cadorna. The King of Italy visited Rome in the early part of December, 1870.

129. On the 8d of July, 1871, King Victor Emmanuel and his Ministers, and the foreign embassies to the Italian Government, removed from Florence to Rome, which then became the capital of a united Italy.

Rome made
the Capital of
Italy.

180. No sooner was a preliminary treaty of peace between France and Germany agreed to, than France began to be distracted by a fierce and bloody civil war, caused by a rebellion of the Red Republicans and Communists of Paris. For some time, the Red Republicans had been quite active, and engaged in revolutionary schemes. Fearing a formidable revolutionary rising, President Thiers and the National

The Red
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Assembly of Spain; and proceeded to effect a permanent organization by electing Senor E. Martos, President of the Assembly. The Provisional Government ordered the suppression of the Royal Guard. Ex-King Amadeus had already left Madrid for Lisbon, in Portugal, whence he was to be conveyed to Italy by an Italian squadron. The establishment of the Spanish Republic was celebrated in Madrid, on the night of the 14th (February, 1873), by a general illumination, on which occasion the streets of the Spanish capital were crowded with people, but there was no disorder.

174. After several months' deliberation, the National Assembly of Spain, on the 22d of March, 1873, passed, by a unanimous vote, a bill providing for the immediate abolition of slavery in Porto Rico, one of the largest of the Spanish West India islands, and accorded to the emancipated

Abolition of
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Montmartre, with many unarmed soldiers of the line, arrived on the scene, and released the prisoners. A severe conflict took place in the Rue Royale. Some artillerymen and cuirassiers were surrounded by a frantic mob, who accosted them with shouts of "Go and fight the Prussians." General Faron's troops, remaining faithful to the Government, cut their way through the mob by which they were surrounded, and escaped, after capturing the insurgent barricades at the point of the bayonet. Generals Lecompte and Thomas were abandoned on the heights of Montmartre, and shot in the Rue de Roquette by their troops, who joined the insurgents.

182. The Central Committee of the National Guard placarded two proclamations, defending their course, and issued orders for the election of a Communal Council for Paris. The regular soldiers in Paris fraternized with the insurgents, who now virtually ruled the city, and mob-law was completely triumphant. The bourgeoisie, or middle class, displayed perfect apathy, and no resistance was made to the insur-

Program of
the Paris
Rebellion.

Cruz, and by Generals Seballs, Dorregaray, and Tristany, and Don Alphonso, the brother of Don Carlos. At the close of May, 1873, General Nouvillas, at the head of 12,000 men, was holding the mountain passes of Biscay, and driving the Carlists in that province toward the coast.

176. During the latter part of April, 1873, Madrid was greatly excited. A rising of the Monarchists in that city took place on the 23rd of April, beginning with the revolt of several battalions of volunteers, who fired on General Contreras. The agitation increased as night approached, and shots were fired in other portions of the city. During this time, the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly held a session, to consider the gravity of the situation, and to deliberate upon measures for the public safety. While the Committee was in session, some of the rebellious volunteers entered the hall, and the Committee sought safety in

**Insurrection
in Madrid.**

and the National Assembly soon rallied a large army, under General Vinoy, to its support. On the meeting of the Assembly on the 21st of March, all the deputies of the Mountain were absent. Measures were taken by the Thiers Government for the suppression of the rebellion, and Versailles resembled a camp. Contrary to the expectations of the Paris Reds, no successful rising of their partisans in the other large cities of France took place; but the departments rallied to the support of the Versailles Government.

134. The Communal elections in Paris took place on the 26th of March, and resulted in an overwhelming majority for the revolutionists. The Commune was soon organized, holding its first sitting on the 29th of March. A Reign of Terror was now inaugurated in Paris, and the outrages of 1793 were repeated. The cry of the Socialists and Red Republicans was, "Death to the priests!" "Death to the rich!" "Death to the property owners!" Aristocrats and wealthy persons were in constant danger of being dragged to the guillotine, and more

**Establishment of the
Paris Commune—A
Reign of
Terror in
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out Spain was 1,200,000. The vote in the capital was light, owing to the apathy of all parties except the Federal Republican. The Constituent Cortes assembled on the 31st of May, 1873. The session was formally opened by Senor Figueras, President of the Spanish Republic, with a speech, in which he maintained the right of the Spanish people to choose their own form of government. The Cortes organized by electing Senor Orens, a Federal Republican, its president.

178. On the 8th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a vote of 210 yeas against 2 nays, proclaimed the establishment of the Federal Democratic Republic in Spain, and then adjourned until evening. The session of the Cortes on the night of the 8th of June was a stormy one. Senor Figueras, president of the Spanish Republic, tendered his resignation; but, after great confusion and excitement, a Min-

**Proclamation
of the Federal
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peace without bloodshed. On the contrary, energy and resolution, but also great inefficiency, were displayed by the Paris Commune.

136. At the close of March, 1871, the military forces of both parties were in motion; and on the 2d of April, a spirited action, favorable to the Government forces, occurred at Courbevoie. The defeated insurgents fled to the bridge of Neuilly, where they were again defeated. More than 200 insurgents were killed, and many were wounded. The insurgents who were made prisoners by the Government troops were immediately shot.

**Battle of
Courbevoie.**

137. On the 3d of April 100,000 Communists, under General Bergerot and Gustave Flourens, issued from Paris, at the Neuilly gate, and marched against Versailles. They were soon met by the Assembly-ists under General Vinoy, and a furious battle ensued, which resulted in great destruction of life. Contrary to the expectations of the insurgents, the garrison in Fort Valerien did not fraternize with them, but, remaining faithful to the Versailles

**Terrible
Battle be-
tween Paris
and Ver-
sailles.**

entertained of a serious outbreak in Madrid. The Cortes continued in secret session on the following day, and during their deliberations, a party of armed volunteers surrounded the palace of the Cortes. A large body of armed police and troops were stationed at various points throughout the city, in anticipation of an outbreak. A majority of the Cortes finally chose Senor Pi y Margall to the Presidency of the Republic, and his Ministry was immediately appointed. The excitement which had prevailed in Madrid for several days greatly subsided, and the city appeared quite calm. Senor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Constituent Cortes.

180. Disturbances occurred at Barcelona on the 24th of June, 1873. There was firing all that night between the soldiers and the citizens. On the succeeding day, the military were all removed from the city, and a cordon of police was

**Disturbances
at Barcelona,
Malaga, and
Seville.**

successes.

insurgent garrisons in a few days were kept up a resolute fire on the Government troops at Chatillon; and on the 7th the insurgents were dislodged from the bridge of Sevres, and a fierce cannonade was kept up between Chatillon and Fort d'Issy and Vanvres.

139. The burial of the insurgent dead in Paris, on the 6th of April, was an extraordinary scene. The most intense grief and indignation were manifested

**Burial of the
insurgent
dead in
Paris.**

by the Parisians. Hundreds of women were marching along the Boulevards; and the bodies of the slain were interred in the cemetery of the Pere la Chaise, amid the shrieks of women and the cries of men for vengeance on "The assassins of Versailles." Pere la Chaise was thronged with people, who shouted, "Vive la Republique!" "Vive la Commune!"

140. On the 7th of April severe fighting occurred at Porte de Neuilly. The Communists at Courbevoie were dislodged by the guns of Fort Valerien, but they rallied up the Avenue de Neuilly, and opened a severe fire on the Versailles troops who appeared on the heights. The Communists were

**Battle of
Neuilly.**

into the Legislative, Executive, and Judiciary Departments. The Cortes was to hold two sessions each year, and the members were to receive salaries. Senators were to be chosen by the States, and Deputies by universal suffrage. Deputies could not act as Ministers. A President was to be elected by universal suffrage, for a single term of four years.

182. On the 12th of July, 1873, the Internationals arose against the authorities at Alcoy, in the Province of Alicante, and assassinated the Mayor of the city, although he was a life-long Republican. His

**Killing at
Alcoy.**

body was dragged through the streets by a mob which kept up a continuous yell. The Collector of Taxes was also assassinated, and his body was treated with the same indignities as that of the Mayor. Several factories were burned by the mob. On the 13th of July, General Velarde entered Alcoy, with a strong column of

Champs Elysees. Marshal MacMahon was now invested with the chief command of the Government forces. The Paris Commune was daily growing more desperate, and the most shameful outrages and revolutionary excesses were perpetrated. Additional numbers of priests and puns were thrown into prison; and at length a demand was made on the Church for 1,000,000 francs, the Insurgents threatening to kill the Archbishop of Paris if the sum was not paid. The Archbishop suffered the most shameful treatment from a band of infuriated Reds.

**—Outrages
and crimes
of the Com-
mune.**

142. There was now severe fighting under the very walls of Paris, and shells were constantly falling in the Champs Elysees. The Arc de Triomphe was repeatedly struck and much damaged. The fighting around Paris was very severe on the 15th and 16th of April. Many more of the inhabitants left the city. The insurgents erected barricades in the Place Vendome, in the Rue Castiglione, in the vicinity of the Tuileries, at Montmartre, and at Belleville, in anticipation of an attack from the Government

**Bombard-
ment of
Paris—Mea-
sures for de-
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vice, and removing the civil governors of the revolted provinces. The insurgents at Cartagena, after gaining control of the city, seized the Castillo de las Galeras, a strong fort on the west side of the harbor, less than a thousand yards from the entrance, which it commanded completely. This gave them control of the batteries on the shore, at the mouth of the harbor. They hoisted the red flag of the Commune over the fortifications, and summoned the squadron laying in the harbor to surrender. The crews being in sympathy with the insurgents, the vessels fell into their hands without opposition. The insurgents levied a heavy contribution upon the inhabitants of Cartagena. The Communists, or Intransigentes, at Cartagena, established a Provisional Government for the Canton of Murcia, at the head of which was General Contreras, as President.

185. Contreras was in command of the insurgent fleet

144. On the 18th of April the insurgents were badly defeated at Asnières. Their large defensive works were fiercely assailed by the Government troops. The Communists fled across the Seine, before the heavy cross-fire from the attacking Government columns. After being reinforced, the insurgents rallied and renewed the battle; but they were again defeated with heavy loss, being a second time driven across the Seine by the Versailles troops.

145. The insurgents continued the work of fortifying Paris, and the most desperate resources were being rendered available for the defense of the city against the Government forces. In various quarters barricades were erected, surrounded by broad deep trenches, beyond which mines of powder were laid. These measures of the Communists for defense greatly terrified the people of Paris. At the Beaujou Hospital, crowds of women, with streaming hair, were uttering loud shrieks, and demanding their husbands, brothers, and children. On the 23d of April, the Government batteries opened a furious cannonade upon

**Battle of
Asnières.**

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taking the chair he made a speech, exhorting the Repub-
licans to be united.

187. The insurgents of Valencia refused to surrender to the Government troops, who thereupon opened a heavy bombardment upon the city on the night of the 30th of July. The city was cannonaded at regular intervals, musketry firing was frequent, and there was some desperate fighting. The Government troops occupied the village of Mislata, but were dislodged by the insurgent artillery, and the village was alternately taken and retaken, and set on fire by shells from the garrison in Valencia. A serious conflict took place at the village of Masannasa, near Valencia, between the Government troops and the insurgents, in which 150 men were killed. Already 200 shells had been thrown into Valencia, and the Government troops had advanced 600 yards.

**Bombard-
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was captured by the Assemblyists at the point of the bay-
onet, and about 300 insurgents were killed in the action. On the 6th of May, the insurgents were repulsed, with a heavy loss, in a sortie from Fort d'Issy. The Government army continued its approaches to the Bois de Boulogne; and on the 7th of May, the Versailles batteries reopened fire on Pont du Jour and other points.

**Capture of
Clamart and
other Govern-
ment ene-
mies.**

148. After many stubborn conflicts and furious assaults Fort d'Issy was finally captured and occupied by the Government forces, on the 8th of May. On the following day (May 9, 1871), the invest-ment of Paris from Gennevilliers to Fort d'Issy by the Government forces was complete, and preparations were being made for a grand assault on the city. On the 13th of May, 80,000 Versailles were in the Bois de Boulogne; sheltered by the trenches of the besieging army. A heavy column of Communist troops which attempted a sortie from Porte Dauphine was blown to atoms by the bursting of twenty shells which came from the lines of the Versailles army.

**Capture of
Fort d'Issy.**

the Captain-General of Barcelona. The mutineers were court-martialled, and twelve of the ring-leaders were sentenced to death, and thirty to transportation to the penal colonies of Spain.

191. Early in September, 1873, socialistic troubles broke out in the Province of Andalusia. In the vicinity of the town of Jimena the farm-laborers banded together, for the purpose of demanding and endeavoring to enforce a division of property. They burned forty farm-houses belonging to those opposed to them, and committed other excesses. Some of the rioters were arrested.

192. The question of military executions engaged the attention of the Cortes, and President Salmeron, who was opposed to capital punishment, tendered his resignation, and his ministry retired on the 5th of September, 1873. On the 7th, Senhor

**Socialistic
rising in An-
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**Resignation
of Salmeron.**

**Encircling of
Paris.**

completely invested and declared in a state of siege. The Parisians were expelled from the trenches between Forts d'Issy and Vanvres. Breaches were made in the enceinte of Paris, by the furious canonade from the Government guns, and the Autueil gate was now completely destroyed. The Western and South-western arrondissements of Paris were now uninhabitable, on account of the great destruction of life and property in those portions of the city. On the night of the 15th of May, the Communists were repulsed with heavy loss, in a sortie upon the Government troops in the Bois de Boulogne; and the Versaillists continued to fire around the ramparts from Pont du Jour to Porte Maillot.

151. At six o'clock in the evening of the 16th of May (1871), the great column in the Place Vendome, which had been erected there by Napoleon I. to commemorate his great victory at Austerlitz, was levelled with the ground, by order of the Paris Commune. The column fell at full length in the Rue de la Paix, amid the shouts of "Vive la Republique!" "Vive la Commune!" from the multitude

**Destruction
of the column
in the Place
Vendome.**

when a demand for a contribution was re-
jected, a fierce bombardment was opened on the city on
the 27th of September, 1873, and 500 projectiles, some
filled with petroleum, were thrown into the city, and did
great damage; but the fleet was seriously disabled by a
vigorous return fire from the forts, and, after several days,
the insurgent fleet withdrew from Alicante.

195. In the meantime, the siege and bombardment of
Cartagena by the Government forces had progressed ac-
tively. A column of 2,000 insurgents made a desperate sortie from the city on the 9th of
October, but were repulsed with heavy loss.

**Siege and
bombard-
ment of Car-
tagena.**

The Intransigente fleet was defeated by the National
squadron under Admiral Lobos on the 11th of October,
near Cartagena. On the 19th of October, the insurgent
squadron from Cartagena appeared before Valencia, but
withdrew several days afterwards, with the plunder of

occurred on the same day in the Rue St. Honore, where two
insurgent barricades were captured and recaptured six
times. The Government troops charged down the street
with fury, and were fired upon from the windows of the
conciergeries. Many of the Communist barricades were
captured, and the Champs Elysees were swept by the heavy
fire from the Versailles artillery, which were planted near
the Arc de Triomphe. Many leaders of the Commune were
captured, and some massacres were perpetrated. The head-
quarters of Marshal MacMahon were established in the new
opera-house. The heaviest fighting occurred in the Rue
Royale, where the slaughter was terrific. At the Tuileries,
10,000 insurgents were made prisoners by the Govern-
ment troops under General Clinchart.

153. At daybreak, May 23d, a terrible fire of mus-
ketry and cannon commenced in the Montmartre district;
and at one in the afternoon, Montmartre was
captured by the Government forces, under
Generals Clinchart and L'Admirault. Heavy
fighting occurred at the barricades in the Place de la
Concorde and the Place de Clichy. The Government
troops under General Cissey captured the barricades in the

**Battle at
Montmartre.**

meron and Castelar. Don Carlos had entered Spain, on the 16th of July, 1873, from Bayonne, France, accompanied by several attendants, and was received by his adherents with indescribable enthusiasm. During the whole summer and autumn of 1873, the Basque Provinces, Navarre, and Catalonia, were the theatres of numerous engagements between the Republican forces, commanded by Generals Nouvillas, Cabrinity, Moriones, and others, and the Carlist bands under the leadership of the Curé of Santa Cruz, and Generals Dorregaray, Sebals, Ollo, and Tristany, and Don Alphonso. By the close of the autumn of 1873, there were 40,000 Carlists under arms in the north of Spain, and Don Carlos took up his winter quarters at Durango, in the Province of Biscay.

197. The Spanish Cortes reassembled on the 2d of January, 1874; and President Castelar read his message

the infuriated Communists.

154. On the 24th (May, 1871), the Communist insurgents, in the madness of desperation and despair, perpetrated acts of vandalism almost unparalleled in the history of the world. With the intention of destroying the city they could no longer rule; the insurgents, from their barricaded positions in various portions of Paris, threw petroleum shells over the city, and fires arose in many quarters. A number of women who were detected in the act of setting fire to buildings were shot on the spot, by the exasperated Government troops. The most famous buildings set on fire were the Palace of the Tuilleries, the Hotel of the Legion of Honor, the Hotel de Ville, and the Louvre. The fighting during the day was of the most desperate character. The streets were strewn with dead bodies, and no quarter was shown by either party. The fighting resulted in immense advantages to the Versailles, the insurgents being driven from many of their positions.

155. The fighting was continued during the 25th, with additional advantage to the Government army.

become a member of the government. Marshal Serrano was made President of the Republic, and an able ministry was formed. Castelar, Salmeron, and other Republican leaders protested with all their energy against the brutal *coup d'état* of General Pavia.

198. On the 8th of January, 1874, a communist insurrection broke out in Barcelona, and barricades were erected in the suburbs by the insurgents. Fort Montijo, on the south side of the city, opened fire on the city; and there was severe fighting in the suburbs. The insurrection continued until the 15th, when the insurgents surrendered, and the authority of the Spanish Government was fully restored in the city.

Communist
Insurrection
in Barcelona.

199. Early in January, 1874, after General Pavia's *coup d'état*, the besiegers of Cartagena redoubled their efforts to reduce the city; but the garrison stubbornly and determinedly held out, and

Bombard-
ment of Car-
tagena.

Pantin. The capture of 6,000 insurgents in the Quartier Moufflard ended the rebellion in that quarter.

The Government troops were severely harassed by the fire of musketry from the windows of houses. Many Communists who attempted to escape towards Pantin were hotly pursued, and slaughtered without mercy, by the exasperated Versailles. The insurgent position at Belleville was vigorously cannonaded by the Government army. The insurgents were driven into the cemetery of Pere la Chaise, where they were surrounded by the Government forces. The Rue Royale was destroyed by mines, and the most terrible fires were still raging in Paris. Women who were detected in pouring petroleum into cellars, were shot by the enraged Versailles. Many of the insurgent leaders, among whom were Valles, Amoureux, Brunel, Rigault, Bosquet, and General Dombrowski, were captured and shot.

Battle of
Belleville.

167. On the 27th occurred the most terrific fighting of the civil war. sanguinary battles were fought at Belleville, Menilmontant, and in the cemetery of Pere la Chaise. No quarter was given to man, woman, or child. After a day of the-

Battle of
Belleville
and Pere la
Chaise.

by a French man-of-war. The members of the Cartagena Junta surrendered the Numancia to the French authorities at Mers-el-Kebir. The Numancia was delivered by the French to a Spanish frigate. The insurgent chiefs, Contreras, Ferrez, and Galvez, were sent to the capital of Algeria, and the Cartagena refugees were interned in the forts and barracks of Oran and Mers-el-Kebir.

201. Winter did not suspend operations between the Carlist and Republican forces in the north of Spain; and the Province of Biscay was the principal theatre of war. During the month of February, 1874, there was severe fighting at Bilbao, Tolosa, and Somorrostro, between the opposing forces, with various success. After the fall of Cartagena, and the suppression of the Intransigente insurrection, President Serrano assumed the chief command of the Government forces operating against the Carlists, and, with the

Among the slain were many women and boys who had fought in the ranks of the insurgents. The Tuileries, the Louvre, the Hotel of the Legion of Honor, the Luxembourg, the Palais Royal, the Hotel de Ville, and the Palais de la Quai d'Orsay were wholly or partially destroyed. This foolish and causeless rebellion, during two months of its existence, cost the lives of many Frenchmen. Many valuable works of art were sacrificed to the madness of the infuriated Communists. The outrages of the Communists equalled those of the Jacobins of 1793; the names of Chasserot, Bergerot, Dombrowski, Delesclaux, Piat, and Rochefort, deserve the same execration as those of Robespierre, Danton, Marat, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot, and Fouquier-Tinville.

169. Upon the suppression of the rebellion, President Thiers appointed General Vinoy military governor of Paris, and military law was established in the city. A heavy doom was inflicted on the vanquished rebels, of whom about 40,000 were held as prisoners. Drumhead court-martial was established, from fifty to one hundred insurgents were shot at a time, and no person was permitted to leave Paris without a pass

Paris under
military
law.

newed on the 26th, continuing all day, and closing at night with decided advantages for the Republican forces. Serrano's troops advanced, and drove back the Carlist lines, capturing, at the point of the bayonet, several villages and several positions which were occupied by the insurgents the day previous. Serrano's losses during these two days were 550 men, and Generals Loma and Primo de Rivera were severely wounded. Serrano made a successful attack on Pedro Abanto, and drove the Carlists beyond Santa Juliana. The fighting at Bilbao was renewed on the 28th of March, lasting all day; and the Republicans were repulsed in their attacks on the Carlist lines, losing 4,000 men, while the Royalists lost only 1,000. A heavy fire was kept up on the Carlist position before Bilbao by the Republican artillery. Active operations before Bilbao were resumed on the 3d of April (1874), with the bombardment of Abanto by the Republican forces.

Legitimists, and 1 Bonapartist.

171. From the moment of his accession to the throne of Spain, King Amadeus found his situation to be an unenviable one. The young sovereign was really without position of King Amadeus. desirous of the welfare and prosperity of his subjects, but he lacked the abilities necessary for the difficult post of a constitutional monarch. The Spanish nation was divided into numerous parties, the rebellion against Spanish power in the island of Cuba still continued, and the young king found opposition on almost every hand. The most important parties opposed to King Amadeus were the Carlists, or adherents of Don Carlos; the Alphonsists, or partisans of Prince Alfonso, the son of ex-Queen Isabella II.; the Republicans, and the Radicals. The Carlists worked actively for the elevation of Don Carlos to the throne of Spain; and the Republicans, headed by Senor Castelar and Senor Figueras, did not cease their dreams for the establishment of a Spanish Republic. The throne of Amadeus was only upheld by the non-agreement of the various opposition parties—the Carlists, the Alphonsists, the Republicans, the Radicals, and others.



172. From the moment of the accession of King Amadeus, in January, 1871, the Carlists and the Republicans plotted against his government; and several attempts were made to assassinate the young monarch. In June, 1872, a formidable insurrection of the Carlists broke out in the North of Spain; but, after some spirited actions, in which the Carlists were defeated by the Government troops, the rebellion was suppressed. Armed bands of Carlists and Republicans roamed over the Northern Provinces of Spain, tearing up railways and cutting telegraph wires. A Republican revolt broke out in the town of Ferrol, in October, 1872, but the insurgents dispersed on the approach of Government troops. The Cuban rebellion still continued without any decisive result.

173. In the beginning of February, 1872, King Amadeus embraced the resolution of resigning his troublesome throne. The Ministry sought to dissuade the king from his purpose, but Amadeus persisted in his determination to abdicate the throne. When it became known that King Amadeus would certainly resign his crown, groups of people assembled in Madrid, and there were some attempts to create a disturbance; but these demonstrations were promptly suppressed, and the crowds were dispersed without any conflicts. The Congress, or lower branch of the Cortes, adopted a proposition that the President of that branch and fifty deputies should constitute a Permanent Committee. The Cortes assembled at a late hour on February 11th, 1873, and the formal message of the king's abdication was read in each chamber separately, but upon the conclusion of the reading the Senate and the Congress met together in one chamber, and constituted themselves the Sovereign Cortes of Spain. Senor Rivero, the President of the Congress, being called to the chair, declared himself ready to answer for the preservation of order, and for the

**Carlist and
Republican
insurrections
—The Cuban
rebellion.**

**Abdication of
King Amadeus—Spain
declared a
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execution of the decrees of the supreme power. The abdication of King Amadeus was unanimously accepted by the Cortes, which then, by a vote of 295 in the affirmative, and 32 in the negative, declared Spain a Republic. That night the streets of the Spanish capital were filled with an excited people. The Senate appointed a Permanent Committee of Thirty. Senor Melcampo and Marshal Serrano offered their support to Prime-Minister Zorilla in maintaining order. The Ministry of Senor Zorilla now terminated, and on the following day (February 12, 1873), the Cortes elected a new Ministry, or Provisional Government, of which Estanislao Figueras, the ardent Republican, was chosen President. After the members of the new Government had taken their seats upon the ministerial benches in the Cortes, President Figueras addressed the Cortes, expressing the hope that the Spanish Republic would be established forever. On the following day (February 13th, 1873), the two houses of the Cortes met in joint session, and constituted themselves the National Assembly of Spain; and proceeded to effect a permanent organization by electing Senor E. Martos, President of the Assembly. The Provisional Government ordered the suppression of the Royal Guard. Ex-King Amadeus had already left Madrid for Lisbon, in Portugal, whence he was to be conveyed to Italy by an Italian squadron. The establishment of the Spanish Republic was celebrated in Madrid, on the night of the 14th (February, 1873), by a general illumination, on which occasion the streets of the Spanish capital were crowded with people, but there was no disorder.

174. After several months' deliberation, the National Assembly of Spain, on the 22d of March, 1873, passed, by a unanimous vote, a bill providing for the immediate abolition of slavery in Porto Rico, one of the largest of the Spanish West India islands, and accorded to the emancipated

**Abolition of
slavery in
Porto Rico—
Dissolution
of the Nation-
al Assembly**

slaves the full privilege of Spanish citizenship. After passing this important measure, the National Assembly dissolved itself by a unanimous vote, on which occasion the greatest excitement prevailed in the Assembly chamber, and in the streets of the capital. On that and the following day (March 22d and 23d, 1873), there were several unsuccessful revolutionary demonstrations in Madrid.

175. In the meantime, a formidable insurrection of the Carlists had broken out in the North of Spain. The Car-

**Carlist insur-
rection in the
North of
Spain.**

lists, instead of concentrating their forces, roamed over the Basque Provinces, Navarre, and Catalonia, in small bands, and engaged in tearing up railways, burning railway stations and bridges, cutting telegraph wires, and in every way interrupting communication in the Northern Provinces of Spain. Numerous small engagements were fought with various success between the Republican forces, headed by Generals Gonzales, Nouvillas, Cabrinity, and others, and the Carlist bands, led by the Curé of Santa Cruz, and by Generals Seballs, Dorregaray, and Tristany, and Don Alphonso, the brother of Don Carlos. At the close of May, 1873, General Nouvillas, at the head of 12,000 men, was holding the mountain passes of Biscay, and driving the Carlists in that province toward the coast.

176. During the latter part of April, 1873, Madrid was greatly excited. A rising of the Monarchists in that city

**Insurrection
in Madrid.**

took place on the 23rd of April, beginning with the revolt of several battalions of volunteers, who fired on General Contreras. The agitation increased as night approached, and shots were fired in other portions of the city. During this time, the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly held a session, to consider the gravity of the situation, and to deliberate upon measures for the public safety. While the Committee was in session, some of the rebellious volunteers entered the hall, and the Committee sought safety in

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flight. The Ultras demanded the establishment of the Commune in Madrid, and engaged in hunting down the members of the Permanent Committee, several of whom were arrested and imprisoned by the infuriated insurgents, and the greatest excitement prevailed. Early in May, there was a renewal of revolutionary demonstrations in Madrid. The city was placarded with numerous proclamations, urging the people to demand the immediate proclamation of the Federal Republic, the abolition of capital punishment, the abolition of the State Council, and the separation of Church and State; and large Federalist meetings were held on the 5th of May (1873).

177. In the meantime, elections for a Constituent Cortes had been ordered. The elections took place on Saturday and Sunday, May 10th and 11th, 1873, and resulted in the choice of 310 Minis-
The Elections in Spain.
terial Federal Republicans, 30 Extreme Radicals, 8 Internationalists, 10 Independent Republicans, and 30 Monarchists. The total number of votes cast throughout Spain was 1,200,000. The vote in the capital was light, owing to the apathy of all parties except the Federal Republican. The Constituent Cortes assembled on the 31st of May, 1873. The session was formally opened by Senor Figueras, President of the Spanish Republic, with a speech, in which he maintained the right of the Spanish people to choose their own form of government. The Cortes organized by electing Senor Oreus, a Federal Republican, its president.

178. On the 8th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a vote of 210 yeas against 2 nays, proclaimed the establishment of the Federal Democratic Republic in Spain, and then adjourned until evening. The ses-
Proclamation of the Federal Democratic Republic.
sion of the Cortes on the night of the 8th of June was a stormy one. Senor Figueras, president of the Spanish Republic, tendered his resignation; but, after great confusion and excitement, a Min-

istry proposed by Senor Pi y Margall was rejected, and the Cortes went into secret session. An excited crowd filled the streets in front of the palace, and within the Chamber the greatest agitation prevailed. Through the efforts of Castelar and Figueras, calm was finally restored in the Chamber, as well as among the populace outside. After successive fruitless attempts of Figueras, Castelar, and Pi y Margall to form a new Ministry, Senor Figueras was finally prevailed upon, by the Cortes, to remain in power with his old Cabinet. After a vote of confidence in the Figueras Ministry, the Courts adjourned. The proclamation of the Federal Democratic Republic was celebrated at Barcelona, on the night of the 8th of June, with illuminations and general rejoicings.

179. At a Cabinet council on the 11th of June, 1873, President Figueras and his Ministers tendered their resignations, in consequence of a disagreement

**Resignation
of President
Figueras.**

with the Cortes on the currency. In consequence of this ministerial crisis, fears were entertained of a serious outbreak in Madrid. The Cortes continued in secret session on the following day, and during their deliberations, a party of armed volunteers surrounded the palace of the Cortes. A large body of armed police and troops were stationed at various points throughout the city, in anticipation of an outbreak. A majority of the Cortes finally chose Senor Pi y Margall to the Presidency of the Republic, and his Ministry was immediately appointed. The excitement which had prevailed in Madrid for several days greatly subsided, and the city appeared quite calm. Senor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Constituent Cortes.

180. Disturbances occurred at Barcelona on the 24th of June, 1873. There was firing all that night between the soldiers and the citizens. On the succeeding day, the military were all removed from the city, and a cordon of police was

**Disturbances
at Barcelona,
Malaga, and
Seville.**

established between them and the city, to prevent a further collision. On the 25th of June, the populace in Malaga arose against the authorities, and killed the Mayor of the city, but order was restored in the evening. The extreme Radicals arose in Seville, and barricaded the streets, but the outbreak was soon suppressed.

181. On the 30th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a large majority, approved a bill granting extraordinary powers to the government, to enable it to crush the Carlist insurrection. Serious apprehensions were entertained of an outbreak in Madrid against the Government, and troops were placed at strategic points in the city. The Constituent Committee of the Cortes completed the draft of a Federal Republican Constitution for Spain. The Constitution provided for the division of European Spain into eleven States; and Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands were to be constituted Territories of Spain. Madrid was to remain the capital. The Government was to be divided into the Legislative, Executive, and Judiciary Departments. The Cortes was to hold two sessions each year, and the members were to receive salaries. Senators were to be chosen by the States, and Deputies by universal suffrage. Deputies could not act as Ministers. A President was to be elected by universal suffrage, for a single term of four years.

Extraordinary Governmental Powers.

182. On the 12th of July, 1873, the Internationals arose against the authorities at Alcoy, in the Province of Alicante, and assassinated the Mayor of the city, although he was a life-long Republican. His body was dragged through the streets by a mob which kept up a continuous yell. The Collector of Taxes was also assassinated, and his body was treated with the same indignities as that of the Mayor. Several factories were burned by the mob. On the 13th of July, General Velarde entered Alcoy, with a strong column of

Killing at Alcoy.

Government troops. The insurgents had already been reduced to submission by the Alicante militia, who took possession of the town, but the leaders of the revolt escaped.

183. In anticipation of the adoption, by the Cortes, of contemplated changes in the new Federal Constitution, the **Insurrections in Andalusia. Murcia, Valencia, and Barcelona.** Provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia, and Catalonia rose in rebellion against the Government, and proclaimed their independence. Declarations of independence were issued at Seville, Cadiz, and Barcelona.

184. The Communist insurgents at Cartagena, headed by General Contreras, made themselves masters of the whole city, except the arsenal. The crews of several Spanish men-of-war in the harbor of Cartagena having revolted, the Spanish Government issued a proclamation declaring them pirates, and authorizing their capture and treatment as such, by any foreign power, on the high seas; and decrees were issued dismissing General Contreras from the public service, and removing the civil governors of the revolted provinces. The insurgents at Cartagena, after gaining control of the city, seized the Castillo de las Galeras, a strong fort on the west side of the harbor, less than a thousand yards from the entrance, which it commanded completely. This gave them control of the batteries on the shore, at the mouth of the harbor. They hoisted the red flag of the Commune over the fortifications, and summoned the squadron laying in the harbor to surrender. The crews being in sympathy with the insurgents, the vessels fell into their hands without opposition. The insurgents levied a heavy contribution upon the inhabitants of Cartagena. The Communists, or Intransigentes, at Cartagena, established a Provisional Government for the Canton of Murcia, at the head of which was General Contreras, as President.

185. Contreras was in command of the insurgent fleet

off Almeria. He demanded a heavy contribution from the city, but as the city authorities refused to comply with his demand, he opened a heavy bombardment on the city. After two hours of heavy firing, the Intransigentes attempted to disembark, but were repulsed by the Government forces, and compelled to re-embark; but they afterwards renewed their attack upon the city.

**Insurgent
attack on
Almeria**

186. The numerous internal troubles of Spain caused the Cortes to demand the formation of a vigorous ministry under Senor Nicholas Salmeron; and accordingly, Senor Pi y Margall and his cabinet resigned, and on the 20th of July, 1873, Senor Nicholas Salmeron was made President of the Spanish Republic, and an able ministry was formed. While the debate on the ministry was going on in the Cortes, great excitement was produced by the explosion of an Orsini bomb at the door. Senor Emilio Castelar was elected President of the Cortes on the 26th of August, and on taking the chair he made a speech, exhorting the Republicans to be united.

**Resignation
of Pi y Mar-
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187. The insurgents of Valencia refused to surrender to the Government troops, who thereupon opened a heavy bombardment upon the city on the night of the 30th of July. The city was cannonaded at regular intervals, musketry firing was frequent, and there was some desperate fighting. The Government troops occupied the village of Mislata, but were dislodged by the insurgent artillery, and the village was alternately taken and retaken, and set on fire by shells from the garrison in Valencia. A serious conflict took place at the village of Masannasa, near Valencia, between the Government troops and the insurgents, in which 150 men were killed. Already 200 shells had been thrown into Valencia, and the Government troops had advanced 600 yards.

**Bombard-
ment of
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188. On the 31st of July, 1873, the insurgents at Seville set fire to that city in four different places, by means of petroleum. The insurrection at Saville was soon suppressed, and the city was occupied by the Government troops. The fires which the insurgents had kindled were extinguished. The Government troops captured twenty cannon at Seville.

Reduction of Seville.

189. Early in August, the Government troops defeated the insurgents in a sharp fight at Malaga, and drove them from the field. The town of Alhama, in the Province of Alicante, proclaimed its independence, and a junta was organized, whose first act was to levy a heavy contribution upon the citizens. The insurgents of Cadiz surrendered to the Government troops, under General Pavia, on the 5th of August.

Fight at Malaga—Revolt at Alhama—Fall of Cadiz.

190. On the 8th of August, 1873, the artillerymen belonging to the garrison of Barcelona mutinied against their officers, but were quickly disarmed and imprisoned by the cavalry under the command of the Captain-General of Barcelona. The mutineers were court-martialled, and twelve of the ring-leaders were sentenced to death, and thirty to transportation to the penal colonies of Spain.

Mutiny at Barcelona.

191. Early in September, 1873, socialistic troubles broke out in the Province of Andalusia. In the vicinity of the town of Jimena the farm-laborers banded together, for the purpose of demanding and endeavoring to enforce a division of property. They burned forty farm-houses belonging to those opposed to them, and committed other excesses. Some of the rioters were arrested.

Socialistic rising in Andalusia.

192. The question of military executions engaged the attention of the Cortes, and President Salmeron, who was opposed to capital punishment, tendered his resignation, and his ministry retired on the 5th of September, 1873. On the 7th, Senhor

Resignation of Salmeron.

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Emilio Castelar was elected President of the Spanish Republic, and he entered on his duties with an able ministry. The Cortes conferred on President Castelar dictatorial powers, to enable him to crush the Carlist and Communist insurrections. Senor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Cortes; and, several weeks later, the Cortes adjourned.

193. On the 16th of September, 1873, there was a serious riot at Ecija, provoked by the Intransigentes, and attended with considerable loss of life. The **Disturbances at Ecija, Malaga and Seville.** municipal elections in Malaga, on the same day, were attended with riot and bloodshed. The Intransigentes of Seville attacked a party of Republican recruits, but the latter resisted, and several were killed.

194 The insurgent men-of-war from Cartagena effected a landing at Augilas, and pillaged the town and suburbs. The insurgent fleet proceeded to **Insurgent bombardment of Alicante.** Alicante, in the Province of Alicante; and when a demand for a contribution was rejected, a fierce bombardment was opened on the city on the 27th of September, 1873, and 500 projectiles, some filled with petroleum, were thrown into the city, and did great damage; but the fleet was seriously disabled by a vigorous return fire from the forts, and, after several days, the insurgent fleet withdrew from Alicante.

195. In the meantime, the siege and bombardment of Cartagena by the Government forces had progressed actively. A column of 2,000 insurgents made **Siege and bombardment of Cartagena.** a desperate sortie from the city on the 9th of October, but were repulsed with heavy loss. The Intransigente fleet was defeated by the National squadron under Admiral Lobos on the 11th of October, near Cartagena. On the 19th of October, the insurgent squadron from Cartagena appeared before Valencia, but withdrew several days afterwards, with the plunder of

ten Spanish merchant ships. On the 23d of October, the Government fleet arrived off Cartagena, and was fired upon from the forts, but the insurgent vessels remained inside the harbor. The bombardment of the city continued incessantly. On the 26th of November the cathedral and hospital were struck by the besiegers' artillery. On the 28th the Protestant church and the theatre were destroyed, and 200 persons were killed and wounded within the city. The insurgents raised the black flag upon the forts. The bombardment did great damage to the city, and 400 houses were destroyed, but the forts and batteries remained almost intact. The bombardment produced distress among non-combatants. The insurgents strengthened their works and armament. The Government forces at length occupied the San Antonio suburb, and, concentrating their fire upon the forts, suspended their bombardment of the town.

196. The Carlist rebellion in the North of Spain continued during the Administrations of Pi y Margall, Salmeron and Castelar. Don Carlos had entered Spain, on the 16th of July, 1873, from Bayonne, France, accompanied by several attendants, and was received by his adherents with indescribable enthusiasm. During the whole summer and autumn of 1873, the Basque Provinces, Navarre, and Catalonia, were the theatres of numerous engagements between the Republican forces, commanded by Generals Nouvillas, Cabrinity, Moriones, and others, and the Carlist bands under the leadership of the Curé of Santa Cruz, and Generals Dorregaray, Seballs, Olo, and Tristany, and Don Alphonso. By the close of the autumn of 1873, there were 40,000 Carlists under arms in the north of Spain, and Don Carlos took up his winter quarters at Durango, in the Province of Biscay.

197. The Spanish Cortes reassembled on the 2d of January, 1874; and President Castelar read his message

from the Ministerial bench. For a long time, a disagreement had existed between Senor **Coup d'Etat of General** Castelar, President of the Republic, and Senor **Pavia.** Salmeron, President of the Cortes, and on this occasion a sharp debate took place between these two Republican leaders and statesmen. On the 3d (January, 1874), the Cortes, on two votes, refused to sustain President Castelar, the majority against him being twenty. As soon as the result of the votes was announced, General Pavia, Captain-General of Madrid, who had surrounded the Chamber of the Cortes with soldiers, sent an officer into the Chamber with a letter to Salmeron, demanding the dissolution of the Cortes. Thereupon Senor Castelar resigned the Presidency of the Republic, and his cabinet retired from office; and immediately some of General Pavia's soldiers entered the hall and expelled the deputies. General Pavia then summoned the most eminent men of all parties to form a new government, excluding only Carlists and Intransigentes; but he refused personally to become a member of the government. Marshal Serrano was made President of the Republic, and an able ministry was formed: Castelar, Salmeron, and other Republican leaders protested with all their energy against the brutal *coup d'état* of General Pavia.

198. On the 8th of January, 1874, a communist insurrection broke out in Barcelona, and barricades were erected in the suburbs by the insurgents. Fort **Communist Insurrection in Barcelona.** Montijo, on the south side of the city, opened fire on the city; and there was severe fighting in the suburbs. The insurrection continued until the 15th, when the insurgents surrendered, and the authority of the Spanish Government was fully restored in the city.

199. Early in January, 1874, after General Pavia's *coup d'état*, the besiegers of Cartagena redoubled their efforts to reduce the city; but the garrison **Bombardment of Cartagena.** stubbornly and determinedly held out, and

made several desperate sorties. On the 9th of January, a column of the National army besieging Cartagena was repulsed in an assault upon Fort San Julian. A heavy fire was kept up on both sides. The besiegers finally compelled Atalaya Castle to surrender. During the siege and bombardment, powder magazines frequently exploded in the city, causing much destruction of life.

200. Cartagena surrendered to the Government forces on the 14th of January, 1874. Upon the capitulation of

Fall of Cartagena.

the city, the members of the insurgent junta and the liberated convicts went on board the frigate Numancia. The Numancia, in escaping, passed five Spanish men-of-war, and arrived safely at Mers-el-Kebir, on the coast of Algeria, with 2,500 refugees on board, among whom were Generals Contreras and Galvez. One of the steamers which attempted to escape was captured, with a large number of refugees. Another insurgent vessel, with a large party of refugees, succeeded in reaching the French shores, whither she was pursued by a French man-of-war. The members of the Cartagenian Junta surrendered the Numancia to the French authorities at Mers-el-Kebir. The Numancia was delivered by the French to a Spanish frigate. The insurgent chiefs, Contreras, Ferrez, and Galvez, were sent to the capital of Algeria, and the Cartagenian refugees were interned in the forts and barracks of Oran and Mers-el-Kebir.

201. Winter did not suspend operations between the Carlist and Republican forces in the north of Spain; and

The Carlist war.

the Province of Biscay was the principal theatre of war. During the month of February, 1874, there was severe fighting at Bilbao, Tolosa, and Somorrostro, between the opposing forces, with various success. After the fall of Cartagena, and the suppression of the Intransigente insurrection, President Serrano assumed the chief command of the Government forces operating against the Carlists, and, with the

aid of his chief subordinates, Generals Loma and Manuel de la Concha, he prepared for a vigorous and decisive campaign.

202. By the middle of March, 1874, the Republican army of 34,000 men, under the chief command of President Serrano himself, stood face to face with a Carlist force of 35,000 men, while General Loma, with 8,000 Republican troops, was moving on the Carlist rear. In the meantime, the Carlists had laid siege to Bilbao, which they bombarded incessantly, throwing 200 shells into the city daily. The Carlists captured an outlying fort with forty prisoners, and they threw incendiary shells into Bilbao with terrible effect. An engagement before the city resulted in the occupation of the Albia suburb by the besiegers. A desperate engagement was fought before Bilbao on the 25th of March, lasting all day, and, in the evening, the Republicans encamped on the positions which they had captured from the Royalists. The fighting before Bilbao was renewed on the 26th, continuing all day, and closing at night with decided advantages for the Republican forces. Serrano's troops advanced, and drove back the Carlist lines, capturing, at the point of the bayonet, several villages and several positions which were occupied by the insurgents the day previous. Serrano's losses during these two days were 550 men, and Generals Loma and Primo de Rivera were severely wounded. Serrano made a successful attack on Pedro Abanto, and drove the Carlists beyond Santa Juliana. The fighting at Bilbao was renewed on the 28th of March, lasting all day; and the Republicans were repulsed in their attacks on the Carlist lines, losing 4,000 men, while the Royalists lost only 1,000. A heavy fire was kept up on the Carlist position before Bilbao by the Republican artillery. Active operations before Bilbao were resumed on the 3d of April (1874), with the bombardment of Abanto by the Republican forces.

Serrano's army kept up a furious cannonade on the Carlist positions before Bilbao. On the 29th of April, fighting was resumed before Bilbao, and continued the next two days; and, on the 1st of May, the Carlists were defeated and routed, and the Republican forces, under President Serrano and General Manuel de la Concha, triumphantly entered Bilbao. During the month of May, there were several skirmishes around Bilbao, and, at the close of the month, the Carlists invested Hernani.

203. On the 25th of June, 1874, General Manuel de la Concha, in the midst of a terrible storm, surprised the

Attack on Estella and death of Marshal Concha.

Carlist positions near Estella. The engagement lasted an hour, and the Carlist losses were heavy. In a bayonet charge on the Carlist intrenchments at Mura, Marshal Concha, who was over eighty years of age, having placed himself at the head of the Republican troops, was instantly killed. The Republican army then fell back to Lerin, eight miles from Estella. The Republican loss was 1,500 men. The command of the Republican army was then given to General Zabala, Spanish Minister of War. Marshal Concha's death produced a profound sensation throughout Spain, and his remains were honored with magnificent funeral obsequies.

204. On the 13th of July, 1874, Don Alphonso, with 8,000 Carlists, made an attack upon the Republicans at

Capture of Cuenca by the Carlists.

Cuenca, and, after a most desperate struggle, during which the Republicans repulsed four fierce assaults made upon them by the Carlists, the Royalists finally obtained possession of the citadel, compelling the Republicans to surrender. The victors practised the greatest and most inhuman cruelties upon the vanquished, many of whom were shot after they had surrendered.

205. In August, 1874, the Spanish Republic was formally recognized by England, France, Germany, Italy,

Austria, Holland, and Sweden; but Russia held aloof, fearing that recognition would strengthen the cause of republicanism in Europe, and alleging that Marshal Serrano's government, which had its origin in a coup d'état, had no legal existence.

Recognition of the Spanish Republic by European Powers.

206. The war between the Republicans and the Carlists continued with various success. In the latter part of August, 1874, the Carlists were repulsed in repeated attacks on Puigcerda. Early in November, 1874, the Carlists laid siege to Irun, which they furiously bombarded for nearly a week, but they were eventually compelled to raise the siege, and to retreat into Navarre.

Progress of the Carlist war—Attacks on Puigcerda.

207. On the 31st of December, 1874, Prince Alphonso, son of ex-Queen Isabella II., was proclaimed King of Spain by the Republican armies. Marshal Serrano acquiesced. The Minister of the Interior immediately sent dispatches to the Governors of the Provinces, announcing that Alphonso XII. had been proclaimed King by the nation, the army, and the Ministry. On the 9th of January, 1875, King Alphonso arrived at Barcelona from France, and was received with great demonstrations of enthusiasm. On the 14th of January, 1875, he arrived in Madrid, and met with a grand reception, and in the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated.

Prince Alphonso Proclaimed King of Spain by the armies.

208. After taking possession of the throne of Spain, King Alphonso issued a proclamation, calling upon the Carlists to lay down their arms, but they refused, and preparations were made to subdue them. In February, 1875, Estella was captured by the Alphonsists, and the Carlists were repulsed in an attack upon Bilbao. In March, General Cabrera deserted the cause of Don Carlos, and issued a proclamation recognizing Alphonso as King of Spain, and calling

Alphonso's proclamation to the Carlists.

upon the Carlists to submit. He also concluded a convention with the Alphonsists. In May, Generals Elio and Aguirre also deserted Don Carlos; and Aguirre issued an address to the Carlists, advising them to submit to King Alphonso.

209. In July, 1875, the Carlists were defeated by the Alphonsists under Generals Jovellar and Martinez Campos,

**Carlist defense—
Flight of
Dorregaray.**

but the Alphonsist general Loma was unsuccessful. Dorregaray fled across the frontier into France, pursued by the Alphonsists. In

August the Alphonsists laid siege to the strong fortress of Seo de Urgel. On the 17th, a body of 6,000 Carlists made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve the beleaguered fortress; and on the 27th of August, 1875, Seo de Urgel surrendered to the Alphonsists. The Carlists were also defeated at other points about this time.

210. In September, 1875, the Carlists in the provinces of Catalonia, Navarre, and Biscay, gave in their submission

**Submission of
the Carlists—
Carlist Dis-
sensations.**

to the Government of King Alphonso, and applied for amnesty. The Carlists became more and more distracted by dissensions in their own ranks; and Don Carlos quarrelled with Generals Dorregaray, Seballs, and others, and ordered them to be shot.

CHAPTER CXII.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

RECENT AFFAIRS OF EUROPEAN NATIONS.

1. AFTER the suppression of the rebellion of the Paris Commune in 1871, the question of the future form of government for France engaged the attention of

**Political
struggles in
France—Fall
of Thiers—
Marshal Mac-
Mahon Presi-
dent.**

the French Assembly and people. The Legitimists and Orleanists effected a fusion, and labored actively for the elevation of the Count de Chambord, the representative of the Legitimists, as the chief of the reunited

House of Bourbon, to the throne of France as king. The Bonapartists, who were now comparatively weak, intrigued in behalf of the Prince Imperial, son of Napoleon III.; while the Republicans of all factions, whose recognized chief was President Thiers, were determined upon the preservation of the Republic. The Radical Republicans, headed by M. Gambetta, demanded the dissolution of the National Assembly which had met in February, 1871, and the election of a new Assembly. On the opening of the Assembly, in November, 1872, a violent struggle began between the parties in that body, for the furtherance of their respective schemes. A committee of thirty was appointed to consider the question of the reorganization of the government of France. M. Thiers recommended the definitive establishment of the Conservative Republic. The struggle between the Republicans and the Monarchists in the Assembly continued until the 23d of May, 1873, when the Monarchical majority in the Assembly demanded the organization of a more Conservative Ministry. On that day a violent scene took place in the Assembly. When President Thiers mounted the tribune to address the Assembly his voice was drowned by the cries of the Monarchists; and, after vainly attempting to make himself heard, the President descended the tribune, and, amid the greatest confusion and excitement, the Assembly adjourned. On the following day (May 24, 1873), President Thiers addressed the Assembly, urging the definitive establishment of the Republic. After a violent debate, and the defeat of the Government on several votes in the Assembly, the Ministry resigned, and a message from M. Thiers was read in the Assembly, in which he tendered his resignation as President of the Republic, which was accepted by a vote of the Assembly. The Assembly then elected Marshal MacMahon to the Presidency of the Republic. The new President announced a Conservative policy, and formed a Cabinet composed chiefly of Monarch-

ists, with the Duke de Broglie at its head. For more than a year the Assembly was engaged in the framing of Constitutional bills. The Monarchists were intriguing for the enthronement of the Count de Chambord, while the Republicans carried nearly all the elections to fill vacancies in the Assembly. On the 20th of November, 1873, the Assembly, by a decisive vote, prolonged President McMahon's powers for seven years. The Broglie Ministry resigned in May, 1874, in consequence of a defeat in the Assembly, and a new Ministry, in which the Duke Decazes was the chief member, was formed.

2. During this time, Germany was disturbed by a religious and political dispute, or a struggle between Church

Ecclesiastical
struggle in
Germany—
Attempted
assassina-
tion of Prince
Bismarck.

The Ultramontanes, or extreme Catholics, held allegiance to the Pope as a higher obligation than allegiance to the Emperor of Germany. The German Government, under the energetic direction of Prince Bismarck, was resolved to assert practically the supremacy of the civil over the ecclesiastical power; while the Ultramontane party, encouraged by the Pope and the reactionary party in France, sought to place the spiritual above the civil power. Bishops were frequently arrested, fined, and imprisoned, by order of the Prussian Government, for their defiant attitude toward the civil authority of the Empire. The Pope addressed a letter to the Emperor William, praying him not to persecute the Church. To this letter the Emperor replied politely, but firmly asserted his determination to defend the imperial authority against the attacks of the Ultramontane party. The most defiant of the clergy were the Bishop of Emerland and Archbishop Ledochowski of Posen. The Prussian Government caused the Catholic churches of Berlin and the Province of Posen to be closed, and Archbishop Ledochowski, who maintained an obstinate resistance to the decrees of the Government, was arrested, tried, and sentenced to two years

imprisonment. The Bishop of Treves, the Archbishop of Cologne, and Bishop Janizewski of Posen, were also arrested for violation of the ecclesiastical laws. The Prussian Government issued an ordinance requiring all Bishops when installed to swear to maintain the subordination of the Church to the State. The Pope, in December, 1873, issued an allocution denouncing the Governments of Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, for their encroachments on the Church. The journals in Prussia which published the allocution were prosecuted by the Government. On the 14th of July, 1874, while Prince Bismarck was riding out in the country, he was fired at by a young Catholic named Kullman. The Prince narrowly escaped assassination, the ball grazing his wrist. Kullman was promptly arrested, and the people were with difficulty restrained from lynching him. Bismarck received over 100 telegrams congratulating him upon his escape.

During this time, England was politically and socially agitated. Large Republican meetings were held in some of the large cities, and the Republican movement, directed by such men as Charles Bradlaugh and Sir Charles Dilke, made much progress among the workingmen. A Cabinet crisis occurred in March, 1873, but was soon terminated by Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet remaining in office. In August, 1873, an English military expedition, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, invaded the negro kingdom of Ashantee, in Upper Guinea, in Western Africa, for the purpose of chastising the Ashantees for their depredations on the British possessions on the Gold Coast. After numerous victories over the Ashantees, the British finally stormed and took Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, early in February, 1874, and compelled King Koffee to accept very humiliating conditions of peace. Late in January, 1873, Mr. Gladstone, finding a majority in Parliament opposed to him on some important measures, dissolved

Republican-
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land—War
with the
Ashantees—
Gladstone's
Fall.

Parliament and ordered new elections. The elections resulted in giving the Tories an overwhelming majority in Parliament, whereupon Mr. Gladstone's Whig Ministry resigned, and the Tories, headed by Mr. Disraeli, returned to power.

4. In the mean time, the question of the future form of government for France engaged the attention of the French National Assembly. After voting the prolongation of President MacMahon's powers for seven years, the Assembly devoted itself to the framing of Constitutional Bills. Finally, in February, 1875, the Assembly passed Constitutional Bills, providing for the establishment of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies, which were to be vested with the legislative power, while the executive power was to be entrusted to a President of the Republic, who was to be elected for seven years, by both Chambers of the Assembly in joint convention. The Constitution also provided that the President of the Republic, with the advice and consent of the Senate, could dissolve the Chamber of Deputies. The principle of Ministerial responsibility was established. The Senate was to consist of 300 members, of which 225 were to be elected by the Council-Generals, the Municipal Councils, and the Arrondissements, and 75 by the Chamber of Deputies; and all Senators were to be irremovable. The Chamber of Deputies was to be elected by universal suffrage. The Senate bill was passed on February 24th (1875), by 448 yeas to 241 nays. On the same day, the Assembly recognized the Republic, by passing the Public Powers bill, by a vote of 433 yeas to 262 nays. An Electoral Bill, prescribing the conditions of suffrage, was debated for many months, and finally passed in December, 1875.

5. During the greater part of the present century, Russia has been engaged in a series of wars with wild Tartar tribes and petty states of Central Asia. In a

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war with Bokhara, in 1864, the Russians were victorious; and in 1871, they subdued Soongaria, which had fought itself independent of Chinese rule in 1864. Early in 1873, a war broke out between Russia and Khiva; and a Russian military expedition, under General Kauffmann, was sent against the Khivans. After several engagements, in which the Khivans were defeated, General Kauffmann entered the Khivan capital in triumph, and dictated terms of peace to the terrified Khan of Khiva (June, 1873). In the fall of 1873, the Russians defeated the Turkomans. In the summer of 1875, hostilities broke out between Russia and Khokand. A Russian army, under General Kauffmann, invaded Khokand, defeated 30,000 Khokand troops, captured the Khokand capital, and forced the Khan of Khokand to accept a humiliating peace. (September, 1875).

Russia's
wars in Central Asia.

6. In July, 1875, the peasants of Herzegovina and Bosnia, provinces in the West of European Turkey, rose in rebellion against the Ottoman Government, to resist the collection of taxes by the officials of the Porte. The insurrection became quite formidable, and fears were entertained that the peace of Europe was jeopardized. The Consuls of the Great European Powers met at Mosar, and endeavored to bring about a pacification, by inducing the Porte to grant needed reforms and reasonable concessions to the Herzegovinians and Bosnians; while, at the same time, they tried to induce the insurgents to submit, but failed. Many engagements of an unimportant character occurred in the autumn of 1875, but no great battle took place; and no advantage was gained by either party.

Rebellion in
the Herzegovina
against
the Turks.

CHAPTER CXIII.—(Continued.)

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE SPANISH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.—THE SPANISH AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

1. Mexico, or New Spain, and South America, during the three centuries that they were dependencies of Spain, were to a great extent isolated from the rest of the world. The most exclusive policy was pursued by Spain toward her American colonies. No foreigners, except such as desired to make discoveries in natural history, were permitted to travel in Spanish America, and then only with the written consent of the King of Spain. The commerce of the Spanish American colonies was crippled by the most severe restrictions, and most of the wealth of the colonies flowed into the mother country. The Spanish Americans were taught to look upon Spain as the mother of nations. The condition of the Creoles and Indians of Spanish America was the most deplorable imaginable. The natives were the victims of the most cruel oppression; being forced to work in the mines, where many of them perished. The influence of priestcraft and Jesuitism contributed to keep the inhabitants of Spanish America in intellectual darkness; and ignorance and superstition enabled Spain to uphold her dominion in Spanish America for three centuries. The condition of the Spanish Americans was far worse than that of the Anglo-Americans, as in the case of the former the intellect was enslaved. In 1780, the standard of revolt was raised in Peru, by Tupac Amaru, a descendant of the Incas, who endeavored to restore his country's independence; but, after a bloody struggle of two years, the insurrection was suppressed, and Tupac Amaru was put to a cruel death, his body being drawn in quarters by horses.

2. The immediate cause of the Spanish American Revolution had its origin in Europe. When intelligence of the dethronement of the legitimate royal family of Spain, by the Emperor Napoleon I., reached Spanish America, in 1808, the inhabitants there, who since the first conquest of the country had been loyal to Spain, declared in favor of the patriots of Spain, who had taken up arms against the French invaders of their

**Effect of
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country, and in defence of their rightful sovereign, Ferdinand VII. The Spanish Americans also took up arms for Ferdinand VII., for the purpose of preventing Spanish America from being placed under the dominion of Joseph Bonaparte, the so-called King of Spain; and they prepared to resist the viceroys, who, in order to retain their offices, for the most part sided with the French and acquiesced in the usurpation of Napoleon. But the motives of the Spanish Americans were misunderstood by the Provisional Junta in Spain, which sent out armies for their subjugation, and which by its tyranny soon alienated the Spanish American colonies from the mother country; and the struggle assumed the shape of a war for independence on the part of the Spanish Americans.

3. In Mexico, or New Spain, all offices were in the possession of the European Spaniards, while the Creoles, or native inhabitants, were deprived of all share in the government. The Viceroy of New Spain allowed the Creoles a share in the government, in order to secure their support to Ferdinand VII., the lawful King of Spain. This measure was opposed by the provincial court of the Audiencia, which, siding with the European Spaniards, seized and imprisoned the Viceroy, and again deprived the Mexican Creoles of their rights and privileges. These arbitrary proceedings increased the bitterness on the part of the Creoles toward the European Spaniards.

Enfranchisement of the Mexican Creoles.

4. On the 16th of September, 1810, the Revolution in Mexico was begun, in the little town of Dolores, by a priest named Hidalgo. The insurrection spread with wonderful rapidity, and Hidalgo soon had 100,000 men under arms. With this immense force, Hidalgo advanced toward the city of Mexico, gained some victories, but soon made a hasty and unaccountable retreat.

Commencement of the Mexican Revolution by Hidalgo.

5. Hidalgo gained some victories during the latter part of the same year (1810), but tarnished his glory by his atrocities. The number of Spaniards put to death by his orders amounted to several thousand. After being several times defeated, Hidalgo was taken prisoner, and was shot by order of the Spanish authorities, in July, 1811. After the death of Hidalgo, Morelos, a warlike priest, who

sanguinary career and death of Hidalgo.

was as generous as brave, gained many brilliant victories over the Spaniards, during the years 1811 and 1812, but he was defeated, captured, and shot in 1813.

6. In 1813, a Congress, which assembled at Chilpanzingo, declared Mexico an independent nation. Various partisan leaders, such as Victoria, Bravo, Guerrero, Teran, Rayon, and Torres, carried on a guerrilla warfare against the royalists until 1819, when the patriots were defeated, and Spanish authority was temporarily re-established in Mexico.

7. On the 24th of February, 1821, Don Augustin Iturbide, who had previously fought on the side of the Spaniards, proclaimed the celebrated "Plan of Iguala," which declared Mexico independent of Spain, its government a constitutional monarchy, and its religion Roman Catholic, while all Mexicans who ranged themselves on the side of independence were invested with the rights of citizenship. After a feeble resistance on the part of the Spaniards, Spanish authority was overthrown, and Mexico became an independent nation.

8. On the 24th of September, 1821, the Mexican capital was entered in triumph by Iturbide. A Congress which was assembled in 1822, elevated Iturbide to the dignity of Emperor of Mexico, with the title of Augustin I. Soon a dispute arose between the Emperor and the Congress. Iturbide ended the dispute by dissolving the Congress, but his arbitrary conduct produced a revolution which resulted in compelling him to abdicate his crown, and to flee from the country. (May, 1823.) He retired to Europe, but returned to Mexico in February, 1824, and, after making a fruitless effort to regain his former power, he was shot by order of the Provincial Congress of Tamaulipas.

6. After the overthrow and flight of Iturbide, in 1823, a Congress was convened, and a new constitution was established, by which Mexico became a federal republic. This Federal Constitution which was somewhat modelled after the Constitution of the United States of America, declared the United States of Mexico a federal republic, and divided the government into three departments—legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislative power was vested in a National Congress, consisting of a Senate and a House of Rep-

**Revolt of Iturbide—
"Plan of Iguala"—Independence of Mexico.**

Iturbide Emperor.

The Mexican Federal Constitution of 1824.

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representatives; the Senate to be composed of two members from each State, elected for a term of four years by the legislatures of the States; and the House of Representatives to consist of members elected for a term of two years by the citizens of the several States. The executive power was vested in a President, who, with a Vice-President, was to be elected by the legislatures of the several Mexican States, for a term of four years. The President was to be a Mexican born, and thirty-five years of age. The judicial power was vested in a Supreme Court, consisting of eleven Judges, and one Attorney-General, who were to be elected by the State legislatures, and who were not to be removed except in cases specified by law. With many excellent features, this constitution did not provide for trial by jury; and it declared the religion of Mexico to be perpetually the "Roman Catholic Apostolic," to the exclusion of all other religious systems.

10. In August, 1809, a junta was established at Quito, by the inhabitants of that city. The junta was suppressed by the viceroy of New Grenada; and, on the 2d of August, 1810, about 300 of the supporters of the junta were treacherously massacred by the royalist troops. *Junta of Quito and Caracas.* During the same year (1810), a junta was established at Caracas, where a declaration of independence was promulgated. Caracas was blockaded by order of the regency of Spain. In their conduct, the colonists were acting in the name of King Ferdinand VII., and in opposition to the various juntas in Spain, and to the French, who had almost subdued the Spanish peninsula. While the war was raging in the Spanish peninsula, Spanish troops were sent to America, to reduce the colonists to submission. A sanguinary war of twelve years' duration desolated New Grenada, Ecuador, and Venezuela, which three provinces were soon united, with the title of Colombia. In the course of this war, the most shocking atrocities were perpetrated by the Spaniards.

11. The Colombians, provoked at the tyranny of the mother country, now resolved upon a political separation from Spain, and on the 5th of July, 1811, a Congress assembled at Caracas declared Venezuela independent of Spain. *Declaration of Colombian Independence—Policy of the Monarch.* Soon afterward the provinces composing New Grenada declared their independence, and their example was followed by Mexico, in 1813, and Buenos

Ayres, in 1816. Still Spain blindly persisted in her despotic course, until her American colonies were lost to her forever. Napoleon and Joseph Bonaparte were doing all in their power to promote the cause of Spanish American independence, with the view of strengthening themselves in Spain.

12. A frightful conspiracy in Venezuela, against the provisional government of Venezuela, was suppressed in 1810. A constitution was adopted in Venezuela in 1812. A junta *Conspiracy in Venezuela.* which had been established in Bogota, in July, 1810, gave place to a congress, which conducted the affairs of the Revolution. A junta had been formed in Popayan and Santa Martha. A junta had been established at Carthagena in 1810. The various provinces, acting separately from their federal governments, and often at war with them, prosecuted the war against the royalists with vigor. The royalists in Popayan, after defeating the patriots, were themselves defeated.

13. The earthquake in Venezuela in March, 1812, which destroyed Caraccas, greatly injured the cause of the Revolution, as many of the patriots, believing the earthquake to be a punishment inflicted upon them from Heaven for their rebellious conduct, joined the royal cause. *Effect of the earthquake at Caraccas in 1812.* Space will not permit us to give an account of the many conflicts between the Colombians and the Spaniards, and the changes of government and civil wars among the Colombians themselves, while struggling for freedom against their common enemy.

14. After the earthquake at Caraccas, that city was taken by the Spaniards, who reestablished their authority in Venezuela, and who filled the dungeons of Puerto Cabello with the defeated patriots. The resistance to Spanish power was renewed in Venezuela by the illustrious Simon Bolivar, who soon defeated the Spaniards, and liberated Venezuela from their yoke. *Suppression of the revolt in Venezuela. —Renewal of the revolt by Simon Bolivar.* The royalists then armed the slaves against the patriots, and the war was renewed with vigor and ended in the triumph of the patriots, who, under Bolivar, gained the battle of Carabollo, on the 28th of May, 1814: but soon afterward, Bolivar was defeated at La Puerta, and the royalists, recovered Venezuela.

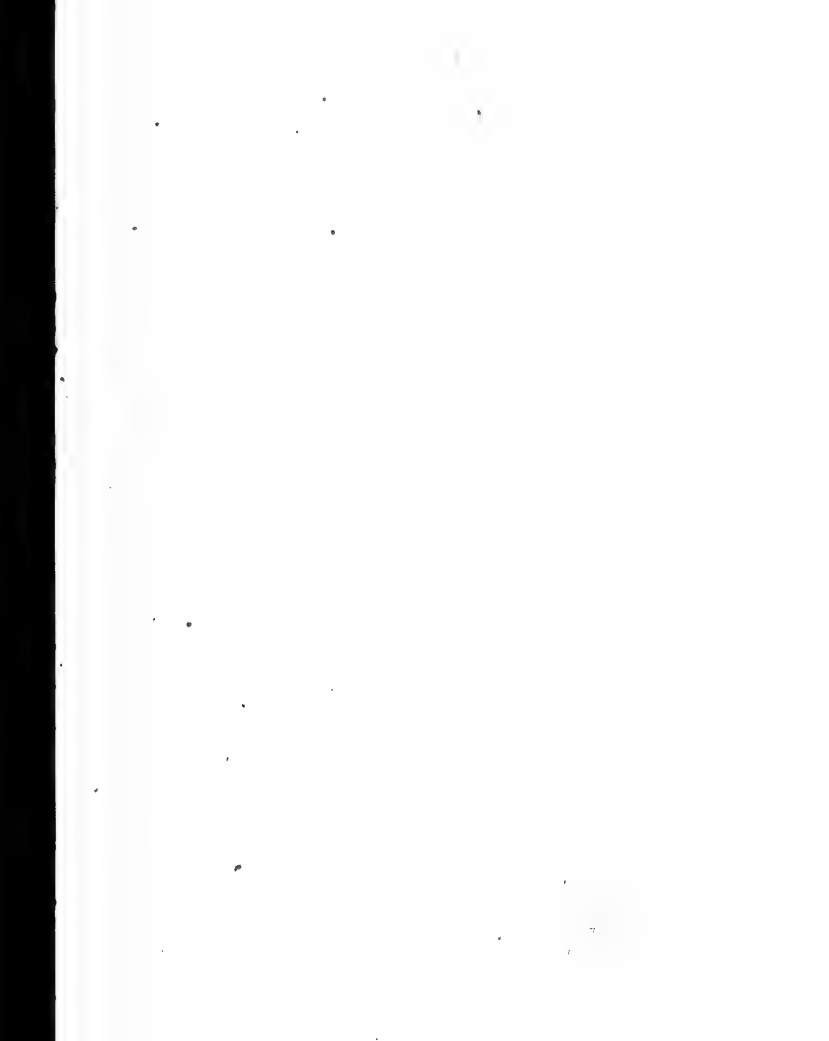
15. In 1814 the Emperor Napoleon I. was overthrown in Europe by the Allied Powers, and Ferdinand VII. came in undis-

puted possession of the throne of Spain. The tyrannical measures of Ferdinand towards the rebellious Americans rendered forever impossible all hopes of a reconciliation between Spain and her revolted colonies. The patriots greatly weakened their cause by their internal dissensions. When the province of Cundinamarca refused to join the Colombian confederacy, the Colombian Congress resorted to military force, and sent General Bolívar with an army to compel Cundinamarca to unite with the other provinces of Colombia. Bolívar compelled the city of Bogota, the capital of Cundinamarca, to surrender, whereupon the rebellious province was obliged to join the confederation.

16. In 1815 a Spanish army, under the brutal Morillo, arrived from Cadiz, and conquered the island of Margarita, on the Colombian coast, and captured the city of Carthagena. General Bolívar again attempted to liberate Venezuela, but he was defeated and compelled to evacuate the province; and the Spaniards, under General Morillo, conquered New Grenada, captured Bogota, and massacred many of the patriots. On the 5th of April, 1817, the city of Barcelona, in Venezuela, was taken by the Spaniards, after a furious assault; but soon afterward, the Colombian army, under General Bolívar and Piar, took the town of Angostura, in Guiana, and Morillo made an unsuccessful attack on the island of Margarita, which had again revolted.

17. On the 16th of October, 1817, General Piar, who had fought bravely for freedom in Colombia, having been detected in a conspiracy for obtaining the supreme power, was executed. The patriots now received assistance from enthusiastic individuals from Great Britain, who joined the Colombian armies, and fought heroically for freedom in Colombia. Patriotic persons from the United States also aided the Colombians.

18. General Bolívar, after marching his army into New Grenada, gained the most brilliant victory of the whole war, in the battle of Boyaca, on the 7th of August, 1819. Soon afterward, Bolívar entered Bogota, where he established a provisional government for New Grenada, after which he entered Venezuela. On the 17th of December, 1819,



the Congress sitting at Angostura, passed the fundamental law, which united New Grenada and Venezuela into one state, with the title of "The Republic of Colombia." General McGregor with a patriot force, after taking Puerto Cabello, was defeated by the royalists. The army and navy of Colombia captured Rio de la Hacha, in April, 1820. An armistice was now concluded, and General Morillo was succeeded in command of the Spanish army by General Morales.

19 The patriots captured Coro, on the 11th of May, 1821; and on the 24th of June of the same year, Bolivar defeated the Spaniards in the battle of Carabobo. The Congress of New Grenada, which shortly after convened at Cucuta, ratified the union with Venezuela. A Spanish flotilla was destroyed on the 30th of the same month (June, 1821) by the Colombian squadron, under Admiral Biron, who compelled the city of Carthagena to capitulate, on the 23d of September of the same year. (1821.)

20. On the 1st of June, 1822, the Colombians under General Sucre defeated the Spaniards in the bloody battle of Pinchincha, which liberated Quito, or Ecuador, from Spanish authority. The Colombian squadron destroyed the Spanish flotilla in Lake Maracaybo, on the 23d of July, 1823, and captured the town of Maracaybo, with the Spanish army under General Morales.

21. Finally the long war was closed, and the independence of Colombia secured, by the surrender of Puerto Cabello to the patriots, in the beginning of December, 1823. The United States had already acknowledged the independence of Colombia, in 1822. In 1824, Bolivar marched into Peru, and part of his army, under General Sucre, gained the battle of Ayacucho, which put an end to Spanish power in America.

22. The news of the dethronement of the legitimate King of Spain by Napoleon, and the rise of the Spanish people against the usurpation of the Bonapartes, occasioned popular movements in Buenos Ayres. The Revolution in Buenos Ayres, or the province of La Plata, began on the 25th of May, 1810, when the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres established a provisional junta. In March, 1811, a new junta was

appointed. The Spaniards of Monte Video were opposed to this proceeding, and sent an army against Buenos Ayres; and war was commenced.

23. The royalists of Buenos Ayres were defeated, and a revolt was inaugurated in the Banda Oriental, of which Monte Video is the capital. The patriots of Buenos Ayres, like those of all other parts of Spanish America, soon quarrelled among themselves; and for ten years, while prosecuting the war against the Spaniards in Upper Peru and Chili, Buenos Ayres was distracted by numerous revolutions and civil wars.

24. The Banda Oriental, with Artigas at its head, was often at war with Buenos Ayres, and with the Brazilians, who claimed its territory. The province of Paraguay became independent in 1812, with Dr. Francia as Dictator.

25. On the 9th of July, 1816, a Congress at Buenos Ayres declared the confederated provinces of the La Plata independent of Spain. Civil war and anarchy continued in the province until 1821, when a period of tranquillity and prosperity returned. In 1829 Spain acknowledged the independence of La Plata, or the Argentine Republic.

26. Bolivia or Upper Peru, as it was called at the time, was the first of the Spanish American colonies to rise in rebellion against the despotism of old Spain. On the 25th of March, 1809, the citizens of the wealthy and enterprising city of La Paz established a provisional junta. The city of La Paz was attacked by the royalists from Buenos Ayres, and, after a heroic defense, was forced to surrender, when many of the unfortunate inhabitants suffered death on the scaffold. The people of La Paz revolted a second time, but were again subdued. The neighboring cities of Cochabamba and Potosi, which had also risen in insurrection, were likewise reduced.

27. The bloody war between the patriots and the royalists in Upper Peru continued with various success until the close of 1824, when the memorable battle of Ayacucho put an end to Spanish authority in South America, and Upper Peru became an independent republic, and was named Bolivia, in honor of the great Colombian president and dictator,

General Simon Bolivar, who framed a constitution for the republic.

28. The revolutionary movement in Chili began in July, 1810, when the people of Santiago deposed their Captain-General, and put another in his place. A junta was formed, which assembled a Congress to consider the condition of the country. Disturbances took place in 1811, which resulted in the exile of the opponents of the revolution. The three ambitious brothers named Carrera soon overthrew the Congress, and took the government of Chili into their own hands. In 1812, a Spanish army invaded Chili from Peru, and, through the dissensions of the Chilian leaders, O'Higgins and the Carreras, the authority of the royalists was re-established in Chili.

29. In 1817, the struggling Chilians found a deliverer in the valiant and patriotic San Martin, who, after crossing the Andes from Buenos Ayres at the head of a patriot army, overthrew the Spaniards in the battle of Chacabaco, which was fought on the 12th of February, 1817, and which gave independence to Chili. The Spaniards reconquered Chili, but their power was hopelessly broken, and the independence of Chili permanently secured, in the decisive battle of Maypu, fought on the 5th of April, 1818.

30. Peru, the land of the Incas, was the last of the Spanish American colonies to strike for freedom. The government of Chili, convinced that Chilian independence was not secure so long as the royalists held Peru, sent an army under San Martin into Peru, in 1820, for the purpose of expelling the Spaniards, and encouraging the Peruvians to throw off the Spanish yoke. A Chilian squadron, under the command of the English admiral, Lord Cochrane, whose standard was joined by many Englishmen and Americans, harassed the royalists on the coast of Peru, capturing many Spanish vessels. On San Martin's appearance in Peru, the Peruvians rose almost unanimously; and the independence of Peru was declared. The Chilians everywhere defeated the Spaniards; and San Martin, after nobly proving his disinterestedness by declining the proffered dictatorship, returned to Chili.

31. The Spaniards soon regained their lost power in Peru,

which they held until the Colombian army, under Bolívar, marched to the rescue of the Peruvians. On the 6th of August, 1824, the Colombians, under General Sucre, gained a victory in the battle of Junin; and, on the 9th of December of the same year (1824), Sucre annihilated the Spaniards in the decisive battle of Ayacucho, which secured the independence of Peru, and which swept away forever every vestige of Spanish power on the American continent. In 1826, Callao, the last stronghold of the Spaniards in South America, surrendered to the Peruvians, and Spanish America became free.

The Colombian Army in Peru.

CHAPTER CXIV.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.—(Continued.)

THE SPANISH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.—MEXICO.—SOUTH AMERICA SINCE THE REVOLUTION.

1. BRAZIL peacefully secured a political separation from Portugal in 1822, with Don Pedro I., of the royal House of Braganza, as Emperor. In 1813, the Brazilians, becoming dissatisfied with the government of Don Pedro I., compelled him to abdicate his crown in favor of his son, Don Pedro II., who was then only five years old. During the minority of Don Pedro II., the government of Brazil was conducted by a regency.

The Portuguese Colony of Brazil.

2. General Bolívar cherished the grand design of the formation of a confederation of all the Spanish American Republics, with himself at its head as dictator; and in 1826, a Congress composed of representatives of all the Spanish American Republics convened at Panama, on the Isthmus of Darien. The deliberations of this Congress were not attended with any important result; and the plan of a Spanish American confederacy failed.

Spanish American Congress at Panama.

3. For several years, war raged between the Empire of Brazil and the Republic of La Plata, or the Argentine Confederation, respecting the possession of the Banda Oriental, situated between the two countries. Through the mediation of Great Britain, peace was concluded in 1828, by which it was agreed to erect the Banda Oriental into an independent republic, under the name of Uruguay. The dictator, General Rosas, governed the Argentine Confederation from 1835

War between Brazil and La Plata.

to 1855. Both the Argentine Republic and Uruguay have been much disturbed by civil wars.

4. A war broke out between the Republics of Colombia and Peru in 1829, which resulted in the defeat of the Peruvians.

**Dissolution
of the Re-
public of
Colombia.**

General Bolivar's ambition created for him many enemies, and greatly weakened his popularity with his countrymen; and a civil war was only prevented by his death, in 1830. In 1831, the Republic of

Colombia was dissolved, and its three great divisions, — New Grenada, Venezuela, and Ecuador, — became separate republics. Since their separation, each of these republics, like all the other Spanish American States, have been distracted by almost constant revolutions and civil wars. In 1861, the title of New Grenada was changed, and that republic has since been known as "The United States of Colombia."

5. Paraguay declared its independence in 1810; and in 1812, Dr. Francia made himself dictator, and ruled with almost absolute

**The Repub-
lic of Para-
guay under
the Dictator,
Dr. Francia.**

and despotic power until 1840, when he died. Under the government of Dr. Francia, foreigners were not permitted to travel in Paraguay, and every inhabitant was compelled to learn to read and write. Francia's rule, though despotic, was beneficial to Paraguay.

6. In 1836, Peru and Bolivia were united in a league, called "The Peru-Bolivian Confederation," at the head of which was General Santa Cruz as director. In 1836, a war broke out between this Confederation and Chili.

**Peru-Boliv-
ian Confed-
eration.**

The Chilians defeated the Peruvians in the battle of Yungay, on the 11th July, 1839. General Santa Cruz was overthrown and obliged to flee from Peru, whereupon the Peru-Bolivian Confederation was dissolved, and Peru and Bolivia again became separate republics. Both these republics have since been the scenes of revolution and anarchy.

7. In 1863 a war broke out between Spain and Peru. The following year (1865), Chili joined Peru in the war. The

**War of Peru
and Chili
against
Spain.**

towns on the coast of Chili and Peru, were bombarded by the Spanish fleets. Valparaiso, in Chili, and Callao, in Peru, withstood these attacks. In January, 1866, the Republics of Venezuela, Ecuador, and Bolivia concluded an alliance with Peru and Chili in the war. Active

hostilities closed with the year 1866, but peace was not formally made until the beginning of 1871.

8. The interference of the Paraguayan dictator, Francisco Lopez, in the domestic affairs of Uruguay, led to a war of Brazil, Uruguay, and the Argentine Confederation against Paraguay, in 1864. Bloody battles were fought on Paraguayan soil with various results. Under the leadership of their able dictator, the Paraguayans fought heroically for the preservation of their national existence, which was threatened by the encroachments of their enemies. But Lopez was driven from one stronghold to another, and, after an enormous expenditure of blood and treasure, this terrible war closed, in the early part of 1870, in the defeat and humiliation of Paraguay. The hard-hearted Lopez, refusing to surrender, was put to death by a Brazilian soldier. The conquerors established a provincial government in Paraguay.

War of Brazil, Uruguay and the Argentine Confederation against Paraguay.

9. After the adoption of the Mexican Federal Constitution of 1824, General Guadalupe Victoria was elected President of Mexico, with General Nicholas Bravo as Vice-President. Victoria and Bravo were installed into office on the 1st of January, 1825.

Election and inauguration of President Guadalupe Victoria.

10. The Administration of President Victoria was very prosperous, and the Mexican Republic enjoyed a greater degree of prosperity than at any previous or subsequent period. The Mexican nation was, however, divided into two political parties,—each of which was controlled by a Masonic lodge. The Escocés, or aristocratic party, desired a strong central government, like the Federalist of the United States, and were accused, by their opponents, of aiming at the establishment of a constitutional monarchy. The Yorkinos, or democratic party, desired the preservation of the Federal system as opposed to centralism, like the Jefferson Republicans of the United States, and were charged with being anarchists and subverters of public order.

The Escocés and the Yorkinos.

11. In the Mexican elections of 1828, bribery, corruption, and all sorts of disreputable means were resorted to by the two great political parties which divided the nation, and many of the elections were declared null and void, in consequence of the illegal proceedings by which they

Election corruption and frauds in 1828.

had been effected. In the same year (1826), the Escoces brought about an insurrection against the Government, but the movement was easily suppressed.

12. Another Presidential election took place in Mexico in the year 1828. The candidate of the Escoces, or aristocratic party, **Presidential** was General Pedraza, and the nominee of the York-
election of inos, or democratic party, was General Guerrero.
1828—Rev. To the surprise of all, Pedraza was elected by a
olution and majority of only two electoral votes over his oppo-
civil war. The Yorkinos, thus defeated in the election, which they declared to have been accomplished by fraud and bribery, determined to place themselves in power by force of arms. The youthful general, Santa Anna, declared that the election of Pedraza had been secured by corruption and bribery; and, at the head of 500 men, he took possession of the castle of Perote, and proclaimed Guerrero President. During the last day of November and the first three days of December (1828), a sanguinary conflict took place in the Mexican capital, between the Government guard and a large body of insurgents, which ended in the flight of Pedraza, the President-elect, who, rather than involve his country in civil war on his own account, advised his partisans to submit to an unconstitutional President, and left the country. Thus revolutionary force was triumphant over the constitution and laws of the Mexican Republic.

13. When the Mexican Congress met, that body declared General Guerrero, the defeated candidate of the Yorkinos, President of Mexico, he having, next to General Pedraza, the highest number of votes. In 1829, a Spanish army of 4,000 men landed at Tampico for the invasion of the Mexican Republic; but, after a few months' occupation, the invading army surrendered to Santa Anna, on the 10th of September. (1829).

14. As President Guerrero refused to relinquish the dictatorial powers which had been conferred upon him for the purpose of meeting the Spanish invasion, General Bustamante, the Vice-President, headed a revolution, which resulted in the overthrow of Guerrero, and the assumption of the Presidency by Bustamante. Guerrero afterwards attempted to recover his authority, but he was made a

**Overthrow
of Guerrero
and Presi-
dency of Bus-
tamante.**

prisoner, and shot as a traitor to the established Government of the Mexican Republic.

15. In 1832, another revolution occurred in Mexico, headed by Santa Anna, who had declared against the arbitrary encroachments of President Bustamante. After a short contest, the revolution ended in the downfall of Bustamante, who retired to France; whereupon the exiled Pedraza, who had been constitutionally elected in 1828, was recalled to serve out the remaining three months of his unexpired presidential term.

16. Early in 1833, Santa Anna himself was raised to the Presidency of Mexico, with Gomez Farias as Vice-President. In less than a fortnight after Santa Anna had entered upon the duties of his office, an insurrection broke out within twenty miles of the Mexican capital, supposed to have been instigated by the President himself, as the avowed object of the insurgents was to make Santa Anna dictator; but he took the command of a large force against the insurgents, whom he completely defeated. Not long afterwards, Santa Anna left the executive authority in the hands of the Vice-President, Gomez Farias, and retired to his estate, to wait for a more favorable occasion to strike a blow for dictatorial power.

17. Early in 1834, Santa Anna, placing himself at the head of the military chiefs and the army, dissolved the Congress and summoned another, and, taking into his own hands all the powers of government, he trampled under foot the Constitution which he had sworn to defend. The Mexican States were more or less convulsed by these arbitrary proceedings, but the Centralist party, headed by Santa Anna, after much opposition, succeeded in abolishing the Federal Constitution of 1824, and established a "Strong Central Republic." The State Legislatures were declared to be abolished, and the States were converted into departments, and placed under the charge of military commanders, who were to be responsible to the chief authorities of the Mexican nation. The Supreme power was to be centralized in the hands of a single individual whose will was law. At the head of this new Government, republican only in name, was Santa Anna as President.

Gomez Farias, who, at the head of the Federalist party, supported the Constitution of 1824, was thrown into prison; and General Barragan, a leading Centralist, was made Vice-President. Several of the Mexican States rose in arms to uphold the Federal Constitution, but all, with the exception of Texas, were speedily reduced by the arms of Santa Anna.

18. The arbitrary and usurping conduct of Santa Anna led to a rebellion of the province of Texas, which was inhabited almost exclusively by emigrants from the United States. These emigrants refused to submit to Santa Anna's military rule, and began a rebellion for the purpose of achieving their independence of Mexican authority. The Mexican troops who invaded Texas were repulsed by the Texans at Gonzales, on the 2d of October, 1835. Before the end of the year (1835), the Texans captured the strong fortress of Goliad and the Alamo. The following year (1836), Santa Anna invaded Texas, with 8000 Mexican troops. For two weeks, 4000 Mexicans, under Santa Anna, had vainly besieged the Alamo, when at length, on the 6th of March (1836), they assaulted the fortress, which they only entered over the dead bodies of the 150 Texans who had defended it.

19. On the 2d of April, 1836, a convention of delegates assembled at Washington, on the Colorado, declared Texas independent. In the meantime, a Mexican force, under General Urrea, was committing the most shocking atrocities along the coast of Texas, massacring small bodies of Texans after they had surrendered. On the 21st of April, 1836, was fought the celebrated battle of San Jacinto, in which 1600 Mexicans, under Santa Anna, were defeated by 783 Texans commanded by General Samuel Houston, after a fierce struggle of twenty minutes. On the day after the battle, Santa Anna was found in the woods by the victorious Texans, and made a prisoner. On being brought before General Houston, Santa Anna exclaimed, "You were born to no ordinary destiny: you conquered the Napoleon of the West."

20. In order to obtain his release, Santa Anna ordered the Mexican army to retire beyond the limits of the Rio Grande, and acknowledge the independence of Texas; but the Mexican Con-

Beginning of
the Texan
Revolution—
Santa Anna's
Invasion of
Texas.

Texas Dec-
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gress refused to confirm the agreement which Santa Anna had made with the Texans, and even Santa Anna himself, on his arrival in Mexico, disavowed all treaties which he had made while a prisoner. Although Mexico refused to acknowledge the independence of Texas, she did not make another vigorous effort to reconquer her lost provinces. Texas remained an independent republic for nine years, recognized by France, England, and the United States, after which it became a State of the American Union. (1845.)

Santa Anna's release—Texas as an independent Republic.

21. After Santa Anna's departure from Mexico for the invasion of Texas, the executive authority of the Mexican Republic devolved upon the Vice-President, General Barragan; and after the death of the latter, soon afterward, General Bustamante, who had just returned from France, was invested with the functions of the Presidency; Santa Anna, by his failure to subdue the Texans, having lost the confidence and favor of the Mexican people, was obliged to retire to private life, until another revolution in his unhappy country restored him to power.

Bustamante made President of Mexico.

22. A rebellion which broke out in Mexico in 1838, was speedily quelled by Santa Anna, whom President Bustamante had entrusted with the command of the Government army, and General Mexia, the leader of the rebellion, was shot after he had surrendered. In November of the same year (1838), a French fleet appeared before Vera Cruz, and when the Mexican authorities rejected a demand for the reparation of the losses sustained by French subjects during the domestic convulsions in Mexico, the fleet blockaded the harbor of Vera Cruz, and French troops were landed before that city. During the retreat of the invaders from Vera Cruz, Santa Anna had one of his legs taken off by a cannon ball.

General Mexia's rebellion and death—Vera Cruz attacked by a French Fleet.

23. In July, 1840, an insurrection of the Fédéralists, headed by General Urrea and Gomez Farias, broke out in the city of Mexico; and after a bloody contest of twelve days, in the streets of the city, between the opposing factions, a universal amnesty was agreed upon. During the same year (1840), the province of Yucatan seceded from Mexico; but, after a struggle of three years against the Mexican forces, it was again united with Mexico.

Insurrection of July, 1840, in the Capital.

24. In August, 1841, another revolution broke out in Mexico, headed by General Paredes and Santa Anna. The revolutionary forces bombarded the capital, and, after a struggle of one month, in the streets of the city, the revolution ended in the downfall and flight of President Bustamante.

25. In September, 1841, a convention of military officers at Tacubaya provided for the assembling of a Congress to frame a new constitution; but this Congress, which met in June, 1842, was soon dissolved by Santa Anna, who had acquired the office of provisional president; and in June, 1843, a national junta or council selected by him framed a new constitution, establishing an intricate representative system of government, leaving to the Mexican people but a shadow of power. The Mexican Republic was divided into Departments. The Roman Catholic religion was to be protected to the exclusion of all others. The executive power was vested in a President, to be elected for five years, who was to be assisted by a Council of Government, composed of seventeen members selected by the President, and whose tenure of office was to be perpetual. The legislative power was vested in a Congress, consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. An annual income of two hundred dollars was required for the enjoyment of all the rights of citizenship. Every 500 inhabitants of a Department were to be allowed one elector; twenty of these electors were to choose one member of the electoral college of the Department; and the electoral college was to elect the members of the Chamber of Deputies. One-third of the members of the Senate were to be chosen by the Chamber of Deputies and the President of the Republic, and the remaining two-thirds by the Assemblies of the Departments. Under this complicated representative system, Santa Anna was made President, or, with more propriety, virtual dictator of Mexico, in 1843.

26. The almost absolute government of Santa Anna produced a wide-spread secret dissatisfaction throughout the Mexican nation. In October, 1844, Santa Anna retired to his farm on private business; and the National Senate appointed the Minister of War, Canalejo, to perform the executive duties in the absence of the President. In November (1844), General Paredes, the adherent

Mexican
revolution
of 1841.

Santa Anna,
President of
Mexico—The
Mexican
Constitution
of 1843.

Revolution
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of Santa Anna in the revolution of 1841, pronounced against the Dictator, and took the field against him. The National Congress siding with Paredes, that body was dissolved and the members were shut up in prison, by order of Canalizo, the acting President; but they were soon released by a body of insurgents; and in the capital, the revolutionists caused Santa Anna's amputated leg, which had been buried with military honors, to be carried about the streets and broken in pieces. After a short civil war, Santa Anna was made a prisoner by the revolutionists, in January, 1845, while attempting to escape from the country; and, after an imprisonment of several months, the National Congress decreed his perpetual banishment from the country.

27. After the overthrow of Santa Anna, in January, 1845, General Herrera was appointed provisional president of Mexico, and in August of the same year, he was elected **General Herrera, President.** President, and, on the 16th of September, he was sworn into office, in the presence of the Mexican Congress. During Herrera's provisional presidency, the Republic of Texas was annexed to the United States of America (July 4, 1845), whereupon General Almonte, the Mexican minister at Washington, demanded his passports; and when intelligence of the annexation reached Mexico, President Herrera issued a proclamation calling upon the Mexican people to defend the integrity and unity of their country, which was represented as being seriously threatened by the aggressions of the United States. War between Mexico and the United States broke out in the spring of the following year. (1846).

28. When President Herrera, convinced of the inability of Mexico to prosecute a successful war against the United States, manifested a desire for a peaceful settlement of the difficulty between the two Republics, General Paredes, who had the command of the army marching northward to drive the United States forces from Texas, took the occasion to arouse the patriotism of his countrymen, to prevent the dismemberment of the Mexican Republic, and pronounced against the Administration of Herrera. **Overthrow of Herrera by Paredes—General Paredes, President.** Upon the approach of Paredes to the capital, the army there declared in favor of the revolution, and Herrera was driven from power and Paredes elevated to the Presidency.

29. President Paredes had no sooner entered upon the duties of his office, than he made the most energetic preparations to carry on the war against the United States. The first bloodshed between the military forces of the United States and Mexico occurred on the 24th of April, 1846, when an American reconnoitering party under Captain Thornton was captured by the Mexicans, on the Texas bank of the Rio Grande. The Americans under General Taylor defeated the Mexicans under General Arista, in the battles of Palo Alto, May 8, 1846, and Resaca de la Palma, May 9; and, during the same month, the American and Mexican Governments formally declared war against each other. On the 18th of May, 1846, the American army under General Taylor captured the Mexican city of Matamoras; and, on the 24th of September (1846,) Monterey, after a defense of four days, also surrendered to Taylor.

30. In the midst of her war with the United States, Mexico was not free from domestic dissensions. While President Paredes was engaged in preparations to prosecute a vigorous war against the United States, his Administration was cut short; for Santa Anna had been recalled by the revolutionary party, and in December, 1846, he was again raised to the Presidency of the Mexican Republic. Immediately after his elevation to power, Santa Anna, notwithstanding his former professions of a desire for the restoration of peace between the two nations, took the field in person against the invading forces of the United States.

31. Disasters befell the Mexican arms in rapid succession. The Americans conquered New Mexico and Upper or New California; while General Taylor, with 5,000 Americans, defeated 22,000 Mexicans, under Santa Anna, in the famous battle of Buena Vista, on the 23d of February, 1847. General Scott, with an American army of 10,000 men, captured Vera Cruz, March 18; defeated 30,000 Mexicans, under Santa Anna, in the battles of Cerro Gordo, April 25; San Antonio, Contreras, and Churubusco, August 20; Molino del Rey, September 8; and Chapultepec, September 13; and, on the 14th of September (1847), he entered the Mexican capital in triumph, and Santa Anna fled from the country. On the 2d of February,

Opening of the war between Mexico and the United States.

Overthrow of Paredes—Santa Anna's recall and restoration to the Presidency.

Occupation of Mexico by the United States army.

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1848, a treaty of peace was concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo, by which Mexico ceded New Mexico and Upper California to the United States.

32. In the autumn of 1848, General Herrera again became President of Mexico, and remained in office until January, 1851, when he was succeeded by General Arista. In January, 1853, Mexico again became disturbed by a domestic revolution, which resulted in the overthrow of President Arista's Administration by Santa Anna, who had just returned to Mexico.

Administration of Herrera and Arista—Santa Anna, President.

33. After the overthrow of Arista, Santa Anna was again made President of Mexico, but adversity had not curbed his ambition; and, soon after his restoration to the Presidency, he was accused of a design to assume imperial power, and the consequence was another revolution in his unhappy country. The leader of this revolution was General Alvarez, "The Panther of the Pacific." After a short civil war, Santa Anna was hurled from power, and his public life was ended forever.

Santa Anna, President—Revolution of 1854 and overthrow of Santa Anna by Alvarez.

34. After the overthrow of Santa Anna in 1855, General Alvarez, his antagonist, was invested with the office of President, but Alvarez was soon succeeded by General Comonfort. On the 11th of March, 1857, a new constitution was promulgated by the Mexican Congress; but President Comonfort, supported by the army, violently opposed this constitution, because it greatly restricted the Presidential power; and, in January, 1858, Mexico again became a prey to the horrors of revolution and civil war.

Administration of Alvarez and Comonfort—New constitution—Civil war of 1858.

35. In 1858, President Comonfort resigned, whereupon General Zuloaga made himself President, in utter disregard of the constitutional rights of Benito Juarez, who, as President of the Supreme Court of Justice, was the legitimate successor of Comonfort. Civil war continued to distract the unhappy country; and Juarez being defeated, retired from the country, but he afterward returned, and asserted his constitutional rights to the Presidency of the Mexican Republic.

Resignation of Comonfort—General Zuloaga, President.

36. The civil war in Mexico, between the Liberals, headed by Benito Juarez, and the Conservatives, headed by Comonfort, Miramon, Marquez, Almonte, and others, continued throughout 1860; but Juarez finally triumphed over his enemies, and secured possession of the office of President, to which he had a legitimate right, but the defeat of his unprincipled antagonists did not restore peace to his distracted country.

37. During the civil war between the Liberals and the Conservatives, both parties seized on the property of foreigners in Mexico; and the Mexican Congress passed an act suspending for two years the payment of certain foreign obligations of debt. In consequence of this action of the Mexican Congress, the Governments of

Allied English, French, and Spanish expedition to Mexico.

England, France, and Spain concluded, at London, a Triple Alliance, with the view of forcing Mexico to fulfil her foreign obligations; and, in December, 1861, a combined English, French, and Spanish expedition arrived at Vera Cruz. The allied troops occupied Vera Cruz without resistance, that city having been previously evacuated by the Mexican forces. The troops of the expedition suffered severely from the excessive heat of the climate; and negotiations were soon opened for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and the invading army, with the concurrence of the Mexican authorities, occupied more salubrious and healthful quarters in Cordova, Orizaba, and Tehuacan, with the understanding that if hostilities should be renewed the allied expeditionary troops should first retire to the positions which they had occupied before the commencement of negotiations.

38. At a meeting of the representatives of the three allied nations in Mexico, just previous to the opening of the peace negotiations, the French Minister to Mexico presented the enormous Jecker claim. This surprised the English Minister and General Prim, the Spanish commander; and the presentation of this claim, with other disclosures made to them, leading to the belief that the Emperor Napoleon III. intended to interfere in the domestic affairs of the Mexican nation, caused the British ambassador and the Spanish commander, on the 9th of April, 1862, to declare the Convention of London transgressed, and to withdraw

Withdrawal of the English and Spanish troops from Mexico.

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the English and Spanish troops from Mexico; from which time the invasion and military occupation of Mexico was continued by the French alone.

39. After the withdrawal of the English and Spanish troops, hostilities were renewed by the French and the Mexicans; but the French did not return to their original positions, **Siege and capture of Puebla by the French.** as agreed upon with the Mexican authorities, but retained possession of Orizaba. On the 24th of February, 1863, the French marched from Orizaba to Puebla, to which they laid siege on the 18th of March. Finally, on the 18th of May, 1863, after a vigorous siege and a heroic defense of two months, during which the garrison repulsed many of the assaults of the besiegers, Puebla and its garrison of 17,000 men, under General Ortega, were surrendered to the French.

40. On the 10th of June, 1863, the French, under General Forey, entered the city of Mexico, after it had been evacuated by the Republican forces under President Juarez, **Occupation of the City of Mexico by the French—Action of General Forey's Junta.** who retired to San Luis Potosi, afterwards to Monterey, and still later to Chihuahua. Soon after the capture of the Mexican capital by the French, General Forey established a junta of thirty-five Mexicans, which junta selected an "Assembly of Notables," which assembly, by a vote of 231 to 19, declared that the future government of Mexico should be a limited hereditary monarchy with a Roman Catholic prince for sovereign, to bear the title of Emperor, and the crown to be offered first to the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, of the imperial House of Hapsburg.

41. The French were now firmly established in the heart of Mexico, but the Juarists were still dominant in the Southern and Western portions of the country; and the contest **The Archduke Maximilian of Austria proclaimed Emperor of Mexico.** between the Juarists and the Imperialists continued with various success until the early part of 1864, when the Archduke Maximilian of Austria arrived in the Mexican capital, and was proclaimed Emperor of Mexico. Maximilian had been placed on the Mexican throne through the instrumentality of the Emperor Napoleon III. of France; and his throne was upheld by the French expeditionary troops and their Austrian auxiliaries, and by the Mexican Imperialists; but the Juarists, or Mexican Republicans, kept the field in

defense of their free institutions, and waged a sanguinary guerrilla warfare against their foreign and domestic foes, having with them the sympathy of the friends of the republican government everywhere. The war was carried on with great barbarity by both parties, the shooting of prisoners being of frequent occurrences.

42. The year 1864 was an eventful one in the history of Mexico. The French captured Matamoras; and the whole Mexican army under General Cortina were forced to surrender themselves prisoners of war. This misfortune to the Liberal cause, together with disasters to the arms of the Juarists in other quarters, seemed to leave the cause of the Mexican Republic hopeless; and Maximilian's Empire appeared to be on a fair way to become secure.

43. With the downfall of the Great Rebellion in the United States, the vitality of Maximilian's Empire decayed; and President Juarez, who had been in the meantime driven into the extreme north-western limits of Mexico, gathered new strength, and by the autumn of 1865, he had recovered a large amount of territory from the Mexican Imperialists, and their French and Austrian allies. In November, 1865, the Imperialists, evacuated Chihuahua, which was soon taken possession of by the Juarists.

44. The progress of events in Mexico was watched with interest by the Government and people of the United States, as the conduct of the Emperor of the French, in attempting the establishment of a Latin Empire on the American continent, was in defiance of "The Monroe Doctrine," proclaimed by the President of the United States at the time of the emancipation of Spanish America from the yoke of Spain. But the United States Government, engaged in the gigantic struggle against domestic foes for its own preservation, was not in a position to oppose the unprincipled schemes of the French Emperor from the beginning; but, after having crushed the Great Rebellion against its own authority, the United States Government resolved upon the enforcement of the Monroe Doctrine, and demanded of the Emperor Napoleon III. the withdrawal of the French expeditionary forces from Mexican territory. After some negotiation, Napoleon III. agreed to abandon the cause of his dupe,

**Capture of
Matamoras
by the
French and
Surrender of
Cortina's
Army.**

**Decline of
the Imperial
Cause.**

**Position of
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Maximilian, and the French troops, about 26,000 in number, were gradually withdrawn from Mexican soil. Early in 1867, Marshal Bazaine, with the last French contingent, evacuated Mexico, thus leaving Maximilian and the Mexican Imperialists alone to contend against the Juarists.

45. After the departure of the French forces from Mexico, Maximilian's Empire rapidly tottered to its fall. Vera Cruz, Puebla, and the capital were besieged by the Liberals; and the Imperialists were gradually hemmed in at Queretaro, which city the Republican forces entered on the 15th of May, 1868, making prisoners of Maximilian, his staff, and the small remnant of his army. On the 19th of June, 1867, Maximilian was shot at Queretaro by the triumphant Juarists. The two Mexican Imperial generals, Miramon and Mejia, were also shot. On the 15th of July (1867), President Juarez returned to the capital amid popular rejoicings, and issued a memorable and eloquent address to his countrymen.

Capture and execution of Maximilian.

46. On the 6th of October, 1867, Benito Juarez was reelected President of Mexico, over the opposing candidate, General Porfirio Diaz; and in December in the same year, the Mexican Congress was again assembled for the first time in three years. After Mexico's triumph over her enemies, the nation rapidly recuperated under the wise administration of Juarez, but this prosperity of the Republic was continually disturbed by revolutionary movements of more or less importance. A combination was formed against Juarez in May, 1868, when Rivero pronounced against the President, but the revolutionists frittered away their strength, and the movement failed.

Re-election of Juarez—Revolutionary movements.

47. In the spring of 1871, another presidential election took place in Mexico. There were three rival candidates in the field,—namely, President Benito Juarez, General Porfirio Diaz, and Lerdo de Tejada. Bribery, corruption, and all sorts of frauds, were resorted to by each party, to secure the election of its favorite candidate; but, as none of the three candidates had received a majority of votes, the duty of choosing the President devolved upon the National Congress, which reelected President Juarez, who was installed on the 1st of October, 1871. On that day, a sanguinary insurrection burst forth in the capital; but the revolt was quelled by General

Re-election of Juarez—Rebellion of 1871-72.

Rocha, who attacked and captured the citadel, after a severe conflict; and about 250 insurgents were shot after their surrender. The partisans of the unsuccessful candidates throughout the country arose in arms, and involved the Republic in the horrors of another civil war. Military chiefs in various States pronounced against Juarez, and took the field at the head of revolutionary bands; and many of the Mexican States pronounced in favor of the revolution. The National Congress granted dictatorial powers to Juarez to enable him to quell the rebellion. In December, 1871, the city of Oaxaca was taken by the Government forces under General Rocha, after a stubborn resistance on the part of the insurgents. The city of Zacatecas was reduced by the rebels under General Guerra, on the 18th of January, 1872. A battle was fought at San Luis Potosi, and Matamoras was captured by the revolutionists. The revolutionary general Trevino defeated the Juarist general Cavallas at Monterrey.

48. On the 18th of June, 1872, President Juarez died of apoplexy; and Lerdo de Tejada, as President of the Supreme Court of Justice, became President of the Mexican Republic. From the time of the death of Juarez, the rebellion declined; the revolutionary chiefs gradually laid down their arms; and in a few months the whole country was quiet, and Mexico was once more relieved from anarchy and restored to peace. In the autumn of 1872, Lerdo de Tejada was almost unanimously elected President; and December 16th, he entered upon his regular term.

**Death of
President
Juarez—Lerdo
de Tejada—End of
the Rebel-
lion.**

CHAPTER CXV.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION—(1775—1789).

NOTE.—The history of the Anglo-American colonies down to the present date has already been given in the preceding chapters. We will now take up the history of the United States from the Revolution.

1. DEMOCRATIC ideas had a slow and steady, but solid growth, in England's North American colonies, from the time of the establishment of those colonies. Those who left their homes in Europe to settle in the New World, were animated with a desire for the enjoyment of pure civil, political, and religious freedom. The republican spirit of the English American colonists was mani-

**Growth of
Democratic
ideas in the
Anglo-
American
colonies.**

tested in popular resistance to obnoxious acts of the British Parliament, and to the tyranny of the royal governors sent from England to America to administer the government of the colonies. The claim of the English Parliament to legislate for the colonies was boldly denied by the colonists, who finally rebelled against the mother country, and, after a war of seven years, achieved their political independence, and established a democratic republic, under the name of "The United States of America."

2. The long wars against France oppressed England with an enormous debt and exhausted the British treasury, and the Imperial Government resolved to procure money from the North American colonies by either direct or indirect taxation. The colonists denied the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax them, as they were not allowed any representation in that body, and maintained that "Taxation without representation was tyranny."

Wants of
the British
Treasury.

3. The British Government first attempted to exercise the asserted right to tax the colonies by issuing search-warrants to persons appointed by the king to enforce the revenue laws. These warrants, called "Writs of Assistance," authorized the Government officials in the colonies to search for suspected goods which had been imported into the colonies, and upon which the duty had not been paid. The colonists firmly resisted this encroachment on their liberties. The legality of the writs was boldly denied by the Americans; and in February, 1761, the matter was brought before the General Court in Boston, where James Oglethorpe, then Advocate-General of the colonies, and an able lawyer, appeared on the side of the American people, and denied the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax the colonies without their consent.

Writs of
Assistance.

4. In February, 1765, George Grenville, who was then at the head of the British Ministry, introduced into Parliament a bill requiring the Anglo-American colonists to purchase for specified sums, and place on all written documents, stamps furnished by the British Imperial Government.

Passage of
the Stamp
Act.

This was a measure which no former British Ministry had the courage to attempt. The passage of this bill, known as "The Stamp Act," in 1765, produced universal indignation in America. Most of the colonial legislatures passed resolutions denouncing the

measure, and James Otis in Massachusetts and Patrick Henry in Virginia thundered forth eloquent denunciations of the act.

5. While speaking in the Virginia Assembly, at Richmond, of the tyrants of former periods, Patrick Henry exclaimed, "Remember your Brutus, Charles I; your Cromwell, and your George III."—Here the speaker was interrupted by a cry of "Treason! treason!" from some of the members, and Mr. Henry, after pausing a moment, said, "May profit by their example: If that be treason, make the most of it." A part of some bold resolutions which Henry had introduced, were adopted; and the colonists were aroused to a firm stand to defend their rights; and the determination was made to resist the execution of the odious Stamp Act. Associations, called "Sons of Liberty," were formed, and the stamps were seized on their arrival in the colonies, and secreted or burned. The officers, called "Stamp Distributors," who had been appointed to sell the stamps, were so much despised and insulted that they soon relinquished their business; and on the day appointed for the Stamp Act to go into effect, there was not an officer who had the courage to attempt the enforcement of the law.

6. A convention of delegates, known as "The Stamp Act Congress," assembled in New York city, on the 7th of October, 1765.

This convention, or congress, which was in session fourteen days, drew up a "Declaration of Rights," which denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, and adopted a petition to the king and a memorial to Parliament. On the 1st of November, 1775, the appointed day for the Stamp Act to go into effect, universal silence reigned in English America: business was suspended; the courts were closed; the bells were silenced and tolled; and the ships in the harbors displayed their flags at half-mast. Suddenly the Anglo-Americans manifested their indignation in an open defiance of the law. The houses of British officials in American cities were assailed by mobs, and loyalists were burned in effigy. The colonists agreed to import no more goods from the mother country, until the obnoxious law should be repealed.

7. The determination of American merchants not to import British goods into America, alarmed the British merchants so much, that they united with the colonists in petitioning Parlia-

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ment to repeal the Stamp Act. The British Ministry ^{Repeal of the Stamp Act.} found that it must either compel the colonists to submission, or have the odious act repealed. After long and angry debates in Parliament, the act was repealed, on the 6th of March, 1766. The repeal was hailed with manifestations of joy, in both England and America. The colonists testified their gratitude to William Pitt and Edmund Burke, the great friends and champions of the Americans in Parliament. The fires of discord were soon kindled anew. For the purpose of securing the repeal of the Stamp Act, Pitt had accompanied the repeal with a "Declaratory Act," which asserted that the Parliament had "the right to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

8. Under the sanction of the Declaratory Act, the British Parliament passed new acts, as obnoxious in principle to the Anglo-Americans as the Stamp Act had been. To ^{New measures of oppression.} intimidate the colonists, British troops were sent to America, in June, 1766, and the Parliament passed a "Mutiny Act," requiring the colonists to furnish food and shelter to these royal troops. In June, 1767, a tax was imposed on several articles imported into the colonies. In July of the same year, an act was passed, creating a board of trade and commissioners of customs in the colonies, independent of the colonial assemblies; and another act was passed which suspended the legislative power of the assembly of New York, because that body had refused to supply the royal troops in that colony with food or quarters. These tyrannical measures highly exasperated the Americans.

9. New non-importation leagues were now formed in the colonies; and pamphlets and newspapers instigated the American people to oppose the oppressive measures of the ^{Boldness of the Massachusetts Assembly.} British Ministry and Parliament. In February, 1768, the Massachusetts Assembly issued a "Circular Letter" to the assemblies of the other Anglo-American colonies, soliciting their cooperation in endeavors to procure a redress of their grievances; and before the close of the year, almost every assembly had asserted that the Imperial Parliament had no right to legislate for the colonies. The British Ministry, highly exasperated at this boldness, ordered the Massachusetts assembly, in the name of the king, to rescind the Circular Letter; but the Assembly, by an almost unanimous vote refused to rescind.

10. The new commissioners of customs, who arrived in Boston, in May, 1768, were detested by the colonists. In June, 1768, the commissioners seized a sloop belonging to John Hancock, because that individual had refused to pay the duty on the cargo on the arrival of the vessel. When the seizure had become known, the commissioners were assailed by a mob and compelled to flee for refuge to Castle William (now Fort Independence), in Boston harbor.

11. At the call of Bernard, the royal governor of Massachusetts, 700 royal troops, under General Thomas Gage, were brought to Boston, for the purpose of frightening the people into submission. On a quiet Sunday, in September, 1768, these troops entered the city, with charged muskets and fixed bayonets, with drums beating and flags flying, and with all the insolence of a conquering army taking possession of a captured city. As the indignant Bostonians refused to furnish the troops who had been sent among them as instruments of slavery, with provisions or quarters, Governor Bernard caused some of them to be quartered in the State House, some in Faneuil Hall and others in tents on the city common. Early in 1769, the British Parliament revived an old law of Henry VIII., which required the governor of Massachusetts to send the leaders of the late disturbances in Boston to England, for trial on a charge of treason.

12. The exasperated people of Boston could with difficulty be restrained from committing acts of violence. The soldiers and citizens quarrelled almost daily; and on the 2d of March, 1770, several citizens were beaten by some of the troops. This created great excitement among the inhabitants, and on the evening of the 5th (March, 1770), several hundred collected in the streets, for the avowed purpose of driving the troops from the city. A fight ensued, in which three of the citizens were killed, and two badly wounded. The mob retired before the troops. The city bells rang an alarm, and very soon several thousand of the citizens assembled under arms. Governor Hutchinson made his appearance, and appeased the excited people by promising that justice should be rendered in the morning. At the demand of the Bostonians, the soldiers were removed from the city; and Captain Preston and eight of the troops, who had fired on the mob, were tried for murder. The

captain and six of the troops were acquitted. The other two were found guilty of manslaughter. Those Bostonians who were killed in the riot were considered martyrs to liberty; and "The Boston Massacre," as the affray was called, was for many years kept alive by anniversary orations in Boston and its vicinity.

13. The disturbances in America, and the complaints of the British merchants, whose interests were injured by the operation of the American non-importation leagues, induced **The English East-India Company.** the British Ministry to propose, on the very day of the Boston Massacre, the repeal of all the obnoxious tax laws, except the duty on tea. The tax on tea was retained for the double purpose of aiding the English East-India Company, and maintaining the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax the colonies. Lord North, who was then Prime-Minister of Great Britain, not comprehending the fact that the colonists were contending for a great principle, and that they considered the imposition, by the British Parliament, of a tax on a single article as a stroke at their liberties just as much as if a hundred articles were taxed, believed that they would not complain of a small duty on one article of luxury. The Anglo-Americans therefore continued their non-importation leagues against the purchase and use of tea.

14. In 1771 the exactions of British Government officials induced rebellion in the interior of North Carolina. The insurgents, whose object was to redress the grievances of the **The regulators of North Carolina.** people, called themselves "Regulators." In a bloody skirmish on the Alamance Creek, on the 16th of May, 1771, the Regulators were conquered by Governor Tryon, and several of their number were hanged for treason; but the spirit of opposition among the people was not crushed, and was frequently manifested in popular outbreaks. On the 9th of June, 1772, a party of sixty-four armed men from Providence, Rhode Island, burned the British schooner "Gaspé," which had run aground while cruising in Narraganset bay for the purpose of enforcing the revenue laws.

15. As the Americans refused to use or purchase tea so long as a duty remained on that article, Lord North, who was still unwilling to relinquish the right of Parliament to tax **the destruction of tea in Boston Harbor.** the colonies, agreed to permit the East-India Company to send over their tea on terms that would

make it cheaper in America than in England. This attempt to bribe the colonists into submission by means of cheap tea only aroused their indignation so much the more, and they refused to receive a cargo of tea. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts, in defiance of the popular will, ordered the landing of several cargoes which arrived at Boston in December, 1773. The people of Boston held meetings in Faneuil Hall, and resolved that no tea should be landed; and on the night of the 16th of December, 1773, a party of about sixty men, disguised as Indians, went on board of the tea-ships, and broke open three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, and emptied their contents into the waters of the harbor.

16. So highly exasperated at the destruction of tea in Boston harbor was the British Ministry that they resolved upon retaliatory

The Boston Port bill and other retaliatory measures.

measures. On the 7th of March, 1774, Parliament passed an act called the Boston Port Bill, which ordered the port of Boston to be closed against all commerce, and removed the seat of the colonial government from Massachusetts to Salem. Another act was passed on the 28th (March, 1774), which virtually subverted the colonial charter of Massachusetts. This was followed by another act on the 21st of April, providing for the trial in England of any person charged with murder in the colonies in support of the Imperial Government. A fourth act authorized the quartering of royal troops in the colonies, and a fifth conceded great privileges to the Roman Catholics in the newly-acquired province of Canada. These tyrannical measures aroused the most intense indignation in America, which was increased when General Thomas Gage, who had just been appointed Governor of Massachusetts, went to Boston with troops, to enforce the obnoxious acts of Parliament. Under his direction, the port of Boston was closed on the 1st of June, 1774.

17. Committees of correspondence had been formed in some of the colonies in 1773. These committees were diligent in their

Committees of correspondence.

work of uniting the colonies by an interchange of views and intelligence. The Anglo-American colonists were now divided into two parties. The few who sustained the British Government were called "Tories;" and the great body of the American people who opposed the despotic measures of the Government, were called "Whigs."

18. Soon after the closing of the port of Boston, the assembly of Massachusetts met at Salem, and issued an invitation to the other Anglo-American colonies to elect delegates, who should meet in a Continental Congress in Philadelphia, in September following. This invitation was accepted; and the first Continental Congress convened in Carpenter's Hall, in Philadelphia, on the 5th of September, 1774. All the colonies, with the exception of Georgia, were represented. The Congress chose for its president, Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, and for its secretary, Charles Thomson of Pennsylvania. The Congress approved the conduct of Massachusetts, in her opposition to the oppressive measures of the British Ministry and Parliament; agreed upon a "Declaration of Rights;" recommended non-intercourse with Great Britain so long as the obnoxious laws of Parliament remained unrepealed; and voted a petition to the king, and an address to the people of Great Britain and Canada; after which they adjourned, to meet on the ensuing 10th of May (1775), unless the British Government should, in the mean time, redress the grievances complained of by the colonists.

The first Continental Congress.

19. During the summer of 1774, the people of English America, and particularly those of Massachusetts, were earnestly preparing for the inevitable struggle with the mother country. They engaged daily in military exercises, chose leaders, and held themselves ready to fly to arms at a moment's warning. On this account, they were called "Minute-men." Martial exercises continued throughout the ensuing autumn and winter; and public speakers everywhere encouraged the colonists to resist the tyrannical measures of the British Parliament. General Gage, Governor of Massachusetts, and British commander-in-chief in America, becoming alarmed, fortified Boston Neck, and seized great quantities of ammunition, found in the New England colonies. A false rumor, which spread over New England in September (1774), that British war-ships were cannonading Boston, produced such excitement that within two days 30,000 armed men were on their way to that city. In October, the Assembly of Massachusetts convened at Cambridge, and resolved itself into a Provincial Congress, with John Hancock as president, and made provisions for raising an army.

Spirit of the New England people.

20. As the British Parliament, early in 1775, rejected a conciliatory measure, proposed by Mr. Pitt, and passed an act prohibiting the colonists from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, thus striking a severe blow at the prosperity of New England, the colonists saw that they must either defend their rights and liberties by force of arms, or slavishly submit to the oppressive acts of Parliament. They chose the former alternative; and, relying upon the justice of their cause and the aid of an All-Ruling Providence, they resolved to bid defiance to the military and naval power of Great Britain.

New oppressive measures of Parliament.

CHAPTER CXVI.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

1. **After** a desperate struggle of more than seven years, from 1775 to 1783, the English Americans gained their independence. The British evacuated Savannah on the 11th of July, 1782, Charleston on the 14th of December of the same year, and New York, on the 25th of November, 1783. On the 3d of November, 1783, the American army was disbanded, and the American soldiers returned to their homes, to enjoy the freedom which their valor had won, and to receive the grateful benedictions of their countrymen. After an affectionate parting with his officers in New York City, on the 4th of December, Washington proceeded to Annapolis, in Maryland, where the Congress was in session; and on the 23d of December, 1783, he resigned, into the hands of that body, his commission of commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States; after which he returned to his farm at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac, carrying with him the esteem and gratitude of his countrymen, and the admiration of the world. Thus Washington, like Cincinnatus, after delivering his country from its enemies, returned to private life.

2. When the War of American Independence was ended, and external dangers had passed away, the Americans perceived that the Articles of Confederation allowed the exercise of too much sovereign and independent power by the States, and too little by the Congress, thus pre-

Weakness of the general government after the war.

venting a Union of States sufficiently strong to entitle the American people to the character or rank of a nation. The Congress had no power to dispose of the immense foreign and domestic debt with which the country was burdened; and the States, all financially exhausted by the war, found it extremely difficult to provide means for the payment of the soldiers of the Revolution.

3. In May, 1787, delegates from all the United States, except Rhode Island, assembled in convention, in the State House, in Philadelphia, with General Washington as president. The constitution was framed at this convention. The purpose of amending the Articles of Confederation, so as to give greater powers to the

General Government. Convinced of the utter defects of the Articles of Confederation, the Convention abandoned its former purpose of amending them, and applied itself to the task of framing an entirely new instrument. The Convention was impressed with the conviction that a centralization of greater power in the General Government was essential to the public welfare; and, in September, 1787, after four months' secret deliberation and much contention, many conflicting opinions and interests having to be reconciled, and the Convention at one time seeming about to dissolve without accomplishing its grand object, the National Constitution, under which the United States has ever since been governed, was framed, and the Convention submitted the instrument to the States for ratification. For an analysis of the Constitution see further on in this work.

4. The National Constitution was to go into effect as the Organic Law of the Republic upon its ratification by conventions of the people in nine States. The new instrument met with violent opposition from a large portion of the American people, and two parties were quickly formed upon the question of its adoption or rejection. Those in favor of its adoption were called Federalists, and those opposed to such action were designated Anti-Federalists. Some of the States very reluctantly yielded their assent to the new instrument, and some of the greatest men in America, such as Thomas Jefferson and Patrick Henry, of Virginia, were strenuously opposed to its adoption, because it deprived the States of too many of their former rights, and centralized too much power in the National Government; but the articles in "The Federalist" in favor of its

adoption, written by Alexander Hamilton and John Jay, of New York, and James Madison, of Virginia, had a powerful effect upon the public mind.

5. After much opposition, the Constitution was finally ratified in 1788, by the convention in eleven States, whereupon it became the Supreme Law of the American Republic; and on the 4th of March, 1789, the old Continental Congress expired, and the new National Government went into full operation. Then the Republic of the United States of America commenced its glorious career.

CHAPTER CXVII.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

THE GROWING AMERICAN UNION—WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION, APRIL 30, 1789—MARCH 4, 1797.

1. AFTER the National Constitution, by receiving the approval of the people of the requisite number of States, had become the Supreme Law of the land, George Washington was chosen, by the unanimous vote of the Electors, the first President of the United States, and John Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice-President. The inauguration of Washington took place, on the 30th of April, 1789, in New York City, in the presence of an immense body of spectators. The First Congress under the new constitution established three Executive Departments,—War, Treasury, and Foreign Affairs,—the heads of which were to be styled Secretaries, instead of Ministers, as in other countries, and who were to constitute the President's Cabinet, and could be appointed and dismissed at his pleasure. A national judiciary was established, consisting of a Supreme Court, having a Chief Justice and several Associate Justices; also Circuit and District Courts, which had jurisdiction over certain specified cases. Henry Knox was appointed Secretary of War; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; and Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of Foreign Affairs. John Jay was appointed Chief Justice.

2. During the second session of the First Congress, early in 1790, on the recommendation of Mr. Hamilton, Secretary of the

Treasury, the National Government assumed the public debt contracted during the war of the Revolution; also the debts which the several States had incurred during the same period. Congress, during this session, passed an act to remove the seat of the National Government from New York to Philadelphia, where it should continue until the expiration of ten years from that date, when it should be removed to a suitable place on the Potomac. Agreeably to the recommendation of Mr. Hamilton, Congress, during its third session, in 1791, authorized the establishment of a national bank and a mint for coinage, both of which were located at Philadelphia.

Financial measures—National bank and mint.

3. Already Rhode Island and North Carolina had become members of the Union, by adopting the National constitution; and the number of States was further increased by the admission of Vermont, in February, 1791, and Kentucky, in June, 1792, into the Union. The vast wilderness west of the Alleghany mountains, which was embraced in the North-West territory and the Territory South-West of the Ohio, was already becoming peopled.

Admission of Vermont and Kentucky—Settlements in the West.

4. In the summer of 1790, the Indians north-west of the Ohio, encouraged by British emissaries, began a war against the United States. After vainly attempting to secure peace, the President sent General Harmer with a considerable force against the Indians. In October, 1790, Harmer was severely defeated by the Indians, in two battles, near the present town of Fort Wayne, in Indiana. A year later, General St. Clair, Governor of the North-west Territory, marched against the Indians, but was defeated on the 4th of November, 1791, and driven back with the loss of 600 men. General Wayne, who succeeded St. Clair, defeated the Indians so badly, on the 20th of August, 1794, near the present Maumee City, Ohio, that they humbly sued for peace. In August, 1795, a treaty was concluded at Greenville, by which the Indians ceded to the United States a vast extent of territory. From this time until the commencement of the war of 1812 with Great Britain, the North-western Indians lived at peace with the United States.

Indian war in the West.

5. Before the second Presidential election took place, in the fall

of 1792, two political parties had been organized. The one, called the Republican or Democratic party, headed by Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State, advocated the distribution of power among the States and the people. The other, called the Federalist party, headed by Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, advocated the concentration of great power in the National Government. In the election of 1792, Washington was again the unanimous choice of the Electors for the office of President of the Republic, and John Adams was re-elected Vice-President.

6. The Republican party sympathized with the Revolutionary party in France, which had executed King Louis XVI., abolished monarchy, and established the political equality of all classes in that country. The French Republic sent as its minister to the United States, M. Genet, who, soon after his arrival in America, fitted out privateers in American ports to prey upon the commerce of England, Spain, and Holland, against which countries, Republican France had declared war. When Washington, anxious to keep the United States free from complications of European politics, issued a proclamation of neutrality, declaring it to be the duty and the interest of the people of the United States to observe a perfectly neutral attitude in regard to the European struggle, Genet tried to arouse the American people against their Government; but, at the request of Washington, the French Republic recalled its imprudent minister, and sent M. Fouchet in his place.

7. In 1791, Congress passed an act imposing heavy duties upon liquors distilled in the United States. This measure was very unpopular, and, in 1794, the people of Western Pennsylvania rose in arms, resisted the Government officers sent to collect the tax, robbed mails, and committed many other outrages. After issuing two proclamations ordering the insurgents to lay down their arms and obey the laws, the President sent General Henry Lee, of Virginia, with a military force sufficient to quell the insurrection. The insurgents immediately submitted, and quiet was restored. This rebellion is known in history as "The Whiskey Insurrection."

8. Unfriendly relations between the United States and Great Britain threatened to end in war, in 1794. The United States

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accused Great Britain of violating the treaty of 1783, by retaining possession of military posts in the North-West Territory, and by withholding indemnification for negroes carried away at the close of the Revolution; and complaint was also made that British emissaries had excited the Indians of the North-West to hostilities against the American people, that to retaliate on France American vessels had been seized by British cruisers, and that American seamen had been impressed into the British naval service. Great Britain complained that the United States did not comply with treaty stipulations respecting the property of Tories, and also in relation to the recovery of debts contracted in England before the Revolution. To settle these difficulties, John Jay was appointed a special envoy to Great Britain. He negotiated a treaty which was violently opposed in the United States, but it was finally ratified by the United States Senate, on the 24th of June, 1794.

9. For several years, American commerce in the Mediterranean sea had suffered from the depredations of Algerine pirates, who seized the merchandise, and held the seamen as slaves for the purpose of obtaining ransom money.

**Algerine
Pirates.**

To put a stop to these outrages, Congress, in 1794, made appropriations for the organization of a navy. In 1795, the United States was obliged to make a treaty of peace with the Dey of Algiers, by which an annual tribute was to be paid for the liberation of captive American seamen.

10. In June, 1795, Tennessee was admitted into the Union of States. The Presidential campaign of 1796 was an exciting one. The candidate of the Federalists was John Adams, and the nominee of the Republicans was Thomas Jefferson. Adams was elected President and Jefferson was chosen Vice-President.

**Admission of
Tennessee—
Election of
John Adams.**

CHAPTER CXVIII.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1797—MARCH 4, 1801).

1. MR. ADAMS was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1797, as second President of the United States. On account of the

Adams' Inauguration.

unfriendly character of the relations between the United States and France, the President summoned Congress to meet in extra session on the 15th of May following. In July (1797), Congress appointed Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, John Marshall, and Elbridge Gerry envoys to France for the adjustment of all difficulties. The French Government refused to receive them until they should pay a large sum of money into the French treasury. This insolent demand was refused with indignation; and two of the envoys, Messrs. Pickney and Marshall, who were Federalists, were ordered to leave France, while Mr. Gerry, who was a Republican, was permitted to remain.

2. The year 1798 was signalized by preparations, on the part of the United States, for war with the French Republic. In May of that year, a large provisional army was authorized; and Washington was appointed commander-in-chief.

Preparations for war with France. A small naval armament was raised, and hostilities were begun on the ocean. The American schooner *Retaliation* was captured by the French frigate *Insurgente*, but the latter was afterwards captured by the American frigate *Constellation*, commanded by Commodore Truxtun. The firm course pursued by the United States Government, caused the French Directory to propose a settlement of the difficulties between the two nations. The President sent three envoys, who, late in 1799, concluded a treaty of peace with Napoleon Bonaparte, who had a short time previous overthrown the Directory, and made himself ruler of France, with the title of First Consul.

3. The Federalist party was greatly weakened by the passage of two extremely unpopular acts by Congress, and their approval by President Adams. These were the Alien and Sedition Laws. The Alien Law authorized the President to expel from the United States any alien whose presence he might deem dangerous to the Republic. The Sedition Law authorized the suppression of publications which tended to weaken the authority of the National Government. The Legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky asserted the dangerous doctrine of State Rights, by passing, in opposition to the Alien and Sedition Laws, resolutions in which they declared the rights of the States to judge how far the National Government had a right to go.

Alien and Sedition Laws.

4. At the close of 1799, the Nation was called upon to mourn the loss of the illustrious Washington, who died at Mt. Vernon, on the 14th of December, 1799. In the summer of 1800, the seat of the Government of the United States was removed from Philadelphia to the new city of Washington, in the District of Columbia. **Death of Washington.**

5. In 1800, the Federalists nominated John Adams and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, while the Republicans nominated Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. This time the Republican party was successful; but as Jefferson and Burr had each the same number of votes, the election was carried to the House of Representatives, when, after thirty-five ballotings, Jefferson was chosen President, and Burr was declared to be elected Vice President. **Election of Jefferson.**

CHAPTER CXIX.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1801—MARCH 4, 1809).

1. MR. JEFFERSON was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1801; and he commenced the administration of affairs with great vigor and ability. In 1802, Ohio was admitted into the family of States; and in 1803, the United States purchased from France, for fifteen millions of dollars, the immense territory of Louisiana, then extending from the Mississippi river to the Rocky Mountains, and from the British possessions to the Gulf of Mexico. **Inauguration of Jefferson.**

2. The insolent conduct of the piratical Barbary States of Northern Africa caused the United States to stop paying tribute to them in 1801, whereupon the Bashaw, or ruler of Tripoli, declared war against the United States. The American frigate *George Washington*, under the command of Captain William Bainbridge, was sent to the Mediterranean sea, to protect American commerce; and, in 1803, a small American squadron, under Commodore Preble, appeared before Tripoli, where one of his vessels, the *Philadelphia*, commanded by Captain William Bainbridge, grounded, and was captured by the **War with Tripoli.**

Tripolitans. In February, 1804, seventy-six Americans, with Lieutenant Stephen Decatur at their head, went into the harbor of Tripoli, boarded the *Philadelphia*, drove the pirates from her deck, and then, under a heavy cannonade from the shore, set the vessel on fire. Decatur did not lose a single man in this bold exploit. A severe naval battle was fought on the 3d of August (1804), which resulted in an American victory; and the city of Tripoli suffered heavy bombardments from the American squadron. The Bashaw of Tripoli, alarmed at the rapid progress of the victors, made peace with Mr. Lear, the American consul-general on the Mediterranean. (June 4, 1805.)

3. In the autumn of 1804, Jefferson was re-elected President, and George Clinton, of New York, was chosen Vice President.

Re-election of Jefferson— The great South-West was rapidly becoming peopled. In 1806, Aaron Burr, who, by killing Alexander Hamilton in a duel, in July, 1804, had come to be

Aaron Burr's Trial. detested by a majority of the people of the United States, secretly organized a military expedition in the Ohio region, with the professed object of establishing an independent empire in Northern Mexico, with himself as Emperor. Being suspected of the design of separating the country west of the Alleghany mountains from the Union, he was arrested and brought to trial on a charge of treason, at Richmond, Virginia, in 1807; but, his guilt not being proven, he was acquitted.

4. The experiments of Robert Fulton, a Pennsylvanian, in the application of steam to purposes of navigation, resulted in success, in a voyage from New York to Albany, in August, 1807.

5. Europe was still convulsed by the wars resulting from the French Revolution; and at this time the greater part of Continental Europe was under the control of the powerful and victorious Napoleon Bonaparte, who had been created "Emperor of the French," in 1804. While France was triumphant on land, Great Britain, which was engaged in a long and fierce war with her old enemy, was undisputed master of the seas.

6. The measures of the two belligerent powers for each other's destruction produced great injury to the commerce of the United

States. For the purpose of destroying the commerce of France, Great Britain, by an order-in-council, declared the coast of Continental Europe from the mouth of the Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, to be in a state of blockade. Napoleon retaliated by issuing a decree at Berlin, in November, 1806, declaring the blockade of the ports of the British Islands. American vessels were seized by both English and French cruisers, and American commerce was swept from the ocean. In January, 1807, England, by an order-in-council, prohibited the coast trade with France. The American merchants, whose interests were injured by the measures of the two belligerent powers, demanded redress and protection; and great excitement prevailed in the United States. France and England still continued their desperate commercial game, regardless of the rights of neutral powers. On the 11th of November, 1807, Great Britain, by an order-in-council, forbade neutral nations from trading with France or her colonies, unless they first paid tribute to England. In retaliation, Napoleon, by a decree issued at Milan, on the 17th of December, 1807, forbade trade with England or her colonies, and authorized the confiscation of any vessel that had submitted to English search or paid English tribute.

7. Great Britain, denying that any of her subjects could become citizens or subjects of any other nation, claimed the right to search American vessels, and take from them her native born subjects for her navy. This right was denied by the United States. On the 22d of June, 1807, an event occurred which increased the excitement in the United States, and created intense indignation against Great Britain. Four men on board the American frigate *Chesapeake*, being claimed as deserters from the British armed ship, *Melampus*, and Commodore Barron of the *Chesapeake* refusing to surrender them, the *Chesapeake* was attacked by the British frigate *Leopard*, off the coast of Virginia. Taken completely by surprise, the *Chesapeake* surrendered after having lost eighteen men, killed and wounded. The four men were taken on board the *Leopard*, and the *Chesapeake* returned to Hampton. The matter was investigated, when it was proven that three of the seamen were native Americans, and the fourth, after being impressed into the British service, had deserted.

8. In July, 1807, the President issued a proclamation, ordering all British armed vessels immediately to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding any to enter until Great

Embargo and non-intercourse.

Britain should render full satisfaction for the outrage upon the *Chesapeake*; and, on the 22d of December (1807), the National Congress decreed an embargo, which prevented both American and foreign vessels from leaving American ports. Because the embargo was very unpopular in the United States, especially with the merchants, to whose interests it was very injurious, and, because it failed to obtain justice from France and England, it was repealed on the 1st of March, when all commercial intercourse with those countries was forbidden, until they should either modify or rescind their injurious measures.

9. The Presidential election of 1808 resulted in the choice of the republican candidate, James Madison, of Virginia, for President, and the reelection of George Clinton as Vice-President.

Election of Madison.

CHAPTER CXX.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1809—MARCH 4, 1817).

1. MR. MADISON entered upon the duties of President of the United States, on the 4th of March, 1809, when the relations of the Republic with England and France were of the most unfriendly character. On account of the unfavorable aspect of affairs, Congress, at the summons of the President, was assembled in extra session on the 22d of May.

Inauguration of Madison.

2. Soon after his inauguration, President Madison was assured by Mr. Erskine, the British ambassador at Washington, that a special envoy from Great Britain would soon make his appearance in the United States, to negotiate for a settlement of all the subjects of dispute between the two Governments. Relying upon this assurance, the President proclaimed a renewal of commercial intercourse

Erskine's assurances of peace fail.

with England, but the British Government disavowed Erskine's act, and the President again proclaimed non-intercourse.

3. Both France and England continued their desperate commercial game for the ruin of each other, regardless of the interests of other nations. Great Britain refused to rescind

her obnoxious orders-in-council, and Bonaparte firmly adhered to his Berlin and Milan decrees, so injurious to American commerce; and American vessels continued to be seized by both English and French cruisers. In 1811, Great Britain went so far as to send armed vessels to the coast of the United States, to seize American merchant vessels, and take them to England as lawful prizes.

Continued
injury to
American
commerce.

4. On the 16th of May, 1811, an event occurred which increased the bitter feeling in the United States against England. The British sloop-of-war, *Little Belt*, Captain Bingham, was met and hailed by the American frigate, *President*, Captain Rodgers, off the coast of Virginia.

The Presi-
dent and the
Little Belt.

The *Little Belt* immediately answered by a cannon shot. A short engagement ensued; and when the *Little Belt* had thirty-two men killed and wounded, her commander gave Captain Rodgers a satisfactory answer. Both Governments approved the acts of their respective officers.

5. During the spring of 1811, the Indians of the North-West, led by Tecumseh, a famous Shawnoese chief, and instigated by British emissaries, began a war against the United States, for the purpose of expelling the white people from the country north of the Ohio river. In the autumn of the same year, General William Henry Harrison, Governor of Indiana Territory, led about 2,000 troops up the Wabash river, to the mouth of Tippecanoe creek, where the Prophet, a brother of Tecumseh, assembled many Indian warriors. The Prophet proposed a conference for peace; but Harrison, suspecting treachery, caused his troops to sleep on their arms that night. (November 6, 1811.) Before daylight the next morning, the Indians attacked Harrison's camp, but, after a desperate conflict, which lasted until dawn, they were repulsed. This engagement is known as the battle of Tippecanoe, and it occurred on the 7th of November, 1811.

Indian hostilities.—Bat-
tle of Tippe-
canoe.

6. All efforts made by the United States Government for a

peaceful settlement of the difficulties with England having failed, the President of the United States, by authority of Congress, issued a proclamation, on the 19th of June, 1812, declaring war against Great Britain.

The contest which then began is known as "The War of 1812." Congress made appropriations for carrying on the war, and authorized the President to enlist 25,000 men, to accept the services of 50,000 volunteers, and to call out 100,000 militia for the defense of the sea-coast and the frontiers. General Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was appointed commander-in-chief. The other leading generals were James Wilkinson, Wade Hampton, William Hull, and Joseph Bloomfield. These officers served in the war of the Revolution.

The war commenced with an invasion of Canada, from Detroit, in Michigan Territory, in July, 1812, by about 2,000

**Invasion of
Canada—
Hull's sur-
render at
Detroit.**

American troops under the command of General William Hull, Governor of Michigan Territory. When informed that Fort Mackinaw, a strong American post in the North-West, had been surprised and captured by a party of British and Indians on the 17th of July, and that a small American force under Major Van Horne had been defeated on the River Raisin, on the 5th of August, Hull hastily returned to Detroit. Sir Isaac Brock, at the head of 1,300 British and Indians, pursued Hull, and, appearing before Detroit, demanded the surrender of that post and Hull's army, threatening in case of a refusal to allow the Indians the unrestrained exercise of their barbarous system of warfare. Hull, greatly alarmed, complied with the demands of the British general; and his army, and the fort at Detroit and the Michigan Territory, fell into the hands of the enemy.

8. After Hull's surrender at Detroit, the Americans made an attempt to invade Canada on the Niagara frontier. On the 13th of October (1812), a party of Americans crossed the Niagara river into Canada, to attack the British at Queenstown. The invaders captured a battery and made themselves masters of Queenstown Heights; but when the enemy were reinforced by 600 men under Sir Isaac Brock, the British commander-in-chief, and when many of the American militia refused to go to the relief of their countrymen, the Ameri-

**Movements
on the Niagara
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cans were defeated with the loss of 1,000 killed, wounded, and prisoners. Among those who were taken prisoners by the enemy were Colonel Winfield Scott and Captain John Ellis Wool, who had distinguished themselves by their gallantry. Among the killed on the side of the British was Sir Isaac Brock, their able and heroic commander-in-chief.

9. The Americans, though defeated on land, were successful on the sea. On the 18th of August, 1812, the American frigate *Essex*, Captain David Porter, defeated and captured the British sloop-of-war *Alert*. On the 19th of the same month (August, 1812), the United States frigate *Constitution*, Captain Isaac Hull, defeated, captured, and burned the British frigate *Guerriere*, off the Gulf of St. Lawrence. On the 18th of October (1812), the United States sloop-of-war *Wasp*, Captain Jacob Jones, compelled the British frigate *Frolic* to surrender, after a severe conflict, off the coast of North Carolina; but, in the afternoon of the same day, both the *Wasp* and the *Frolic* were taken by the British ship *Poitiers*. On the 25th of October, the American frigate *United States*, Captain Stephen Decatur, was captured by the British frigate *Macedonian*, off the Azores Islands. On the 29th of December, the American frigate *Constitution*, Captain William Bainbridge, compelled the British frigate *Java* to strike her colors, after a desperate fight of three hours, off the coast of Brazil.

Victories of
the Ameri-
can navy.

10. The Federalists were violently opposed to the war; but they failed in their endeavors to make it unpopular, as the war spirit of the great majority of the people of the United States was fully demonstrated in the autumn of 1812, by the re-election of Madison as President, with Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, as Vice President.

Federalist
opposition
to the war.

11. The Americans had organized three armies on the Canada frontier, for the campaign of 1813. "The Army of the West," under General William Henry Harrison, was near the Western end of Lake Erie; "The Army of the Centre," under General Henry Dearborn, the commander-in-chief, was on the Niagara frontier; and "The Army of the North," under General Wade Hampton, was near Lake Champlain.

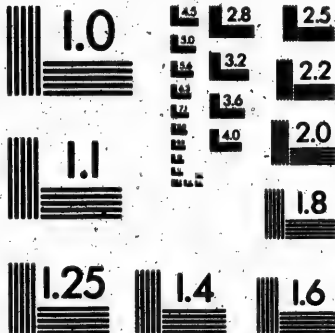
The Ameri-
can armies.

12. The people of the West were resolved to recover Michi-



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)



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gan Territory; and so many Volunteers from Ohio and Kentucky offered their services that General Harrison found himself obliged to issue an order against further enlistments. On the 10th of January, 1813, General Winchester, with 800 Kentuckians, reached the Maumee Rapids, and, after a portion of this force had driven the British from Frenchtown, on the River Raisin, in Michigan, on the 18th of January, Winchester arrived with the remainder of the troops on the 20th (January, 1813). General Proctor, with 1500 British and Indians, attacked the Americans at Frenchtown, on the 22d January, and Winchester surrendered, on condition that his troops should be protected from the Indians; but Proctor, in disregard of his promise, marched away, leaving the sick and wounded Americans to be massacred by the Indians. From that time the war-cry of the Kentuckians was, "Remember the River Raisin!"

13. In February, 1813, General Harrison built Fort Meigs, at the Maumee Rapids, where he was besieged at the beginning of May, 1813, by 2,000 British and Indians, under Proctor and Tecumseh, who were finally driven away on the 5th May, when Harrison was reinforced by a body of Kentuckians, under General Green Clay. On the 21st of July, 1813, about 4,000 British and Indians, under Proctor and Tecumseh, again besieged Fort Meigs, but the garrison, then under the command of General Clay, repulsed the enemy and compelled them to retire.

14. After their second repulse before Fort Meigs, Proctor and Tecumseh marched against Fort Stephenson, at Lower Sandusky, which they attacked on the 2d of August, but the garrison of 150 men, under Major Croghan, a gallant officer only twenty-one years of age, bravely resisted the assaults of the enemy, who were at last obliged to flee in confusion.

15. During the summer, the Americans constructed at Erie, in Pennsylvania, a squadron of nine vessels, carrying fifty-five guns, which they placed under the command of Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry. The British had prepared a squadron of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns, commanded by Commodore Barclay. A terrible battle was fought between these two squadrons near the west end of Lake Erie, on

**Massacre
of French-
town.**

**Fort Meigs
twice be-
sieged.**

**Attack on
Fort Ste-
phenson re-
pulsed.**

**Perry's vic-
tory on Lake
Erie.**

the 10th of September, 1813. Each squadron had about 500 men. During the battle, which began about noon, Perry was obliged to abandon his flag-ship, the *Lawrence*, and to transfer his flag to another ship, in the midst of a severe fire from the enemy. Such terrible broadsides were poured upon the enemy's fleet, that at four o'clock in the afternoon, every British vessel had surrendered to Perry. Perry's dispatch to General Harrison was, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

16. After the victory on Lake Erie, Perry's fleet conveyed General Harrison and his army across the Lake to Canada. Harrison advanced upon Fort Malden, which he found deserted. He pursued and overtook the fleeing British and Indians, under Proctor and Tecumseh, and, at the Moravian Town, on the Thames, he annihilated the whole force of the enemy, on the 5th of October (1813). Tecumseh was among the killed. The consequences of this brilliant victory were the recovery of Michigan and the termination of the war in the North-West.

Canada
again in-
vaded—
Battle of the
Thames.

17. On the 27th of April (1813), General Dearborn, after being conveyed across Lake Ontario in Commodore Chauncey's fleet, landed with 1,700 troops at York, now Toronto, the capital of Upper Canada, and an important depot of British supplies. The place was immediately abandoned by the enemy, who blew up their magazine, thus killing 200 Americans, among whom was the gallant General Zebulon N. Pike, who led the troops against the town.

Capture of
York or
Toronto.

18. On the 27th of May, the army under Dearborn and the fleet under Chauncey attacked the British at Fort George, in Canada, at the mouth of the Niagara river, and drove them westward for many miles. On the night of the 6th of June, the enemy were repulsed in a sudden attack upon the pursuing Americans, at Stony Creek; but Generals Chandler and Winder, the American officers, were taken prisoners.

Capture of
Fort George.

19. On the 29th of May, 1813, Sir George Prevost, with 1000 British soldiers, landed at Sackett's Harbor, but they were repulsed in an attack upon the town, by the American militia, under General Jacob Brown, and compelled to return hastily to their ships. In August, Dearborn was succeeded in command by General James Wilkinson,

Battle of
Sackett's
Harbor—
Battle of
Chrysler's
Field.

who, with 7000 troops, went down the St. Lawrence in boats, early in November, for the purpose of attacking Montreal. Wilkinson landed troops near Williamsburg, on the Canada shore of the St. Lawrence, a little below Ogdensburg, when an indecisive action, known as "The Battle of Chrysler's Field," was fought with the enemy, on the 11th of November (1813). Wilkinson proceeded farther down the river; but when General Wade Hampton refused to co-operate with him, he relinquished his intention of attacking Montreal, and went into winter-quarters at French Mills.

20. General George McClure, who then commanded American troops on the Niagara frontier, was so hard pressed by the enemy that he destroyed Fort George, and the neighboring village of Newark, on the 10th of December, 1813; and on the 12th, he fled to Fort Niagara, on the New York side of the Niagara river. The British and Indians crossed the river, captured Fort Niagara on the 29th of December, and laid six towns, including Buffalo, in ashes.

21. In the mean time, trouble had arisen in the South, where the Creek Indians, instigated by Tecumseh, had commenced a fierce war against the white people. On the 30th of August, 1813, the Creeks surprised and destroyed Fort Mimms, on the Alabama river, and put to death 400 men, women, and children, who had sought refuge within its walls. This atrocious deed aroused the indignation of the white people; and General Andrew Jackson marched into the Creek country, at the head of 2000 men, chiefly Tennesseans, and, in a series of conflicts, beginning in the early part of November, 1813, and ending with the battle of Topeka, or Great Horse Shoe, at the close of March, 1814, the Creeks were so thoroughly defeated, and their power was so completely broken, that they were compelled to accept a humiliating peace.

22. The ocean was the theatre of desperate engagements in 1813. On the 24th of February, the American sloop-of-war *Hornet*, Captain James Lawrence, captured the British brig *Peacock*, off the coast of Jamaica after a sharp action of fifteen minutes. The *Peacock* sunk soon after the fight, carrying with her to the bottom of the sea nine British and three American seamen. Captain Lawrence,

**Desolation
of the Ni-
gara Fron-
tier.**

**War with
the Creek
Indians.**

**The War on
the Ocean.**

soon after his return to the United States, was promoted to the command of the frigate *Chesapeake*; and on the 1st of June, he was defeated and killed, after a bloody struggle of fifteen minutes with the British frigate *Shannon*, off Boston harbor. Forty-eight of the officers and crew of the *Chesapeake* were killed, and ninety-eight wounded. As the heroic Lawrence was carried below, he exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship!" The American brig *Argus*, Captain Allen, after capturing many vessels off the English coast, was herself captured, on the 14th of August, 1813, by the British brig *Pelican*. On the 5th of September, 1813, the American brig *Enterprise*, Lieutenant Burrows, captured the British brig *Borer*, off Portland, Maine. The commanders of both vessels were killed, and their remains were interred, with military honors, in one grave, in Portland.

23. During the spring and summer of 1813, Lewistown, on Delaware bay, and Havre de Grace, Frenchtown, Fredericktown, and Georgetown, on Chesapeake bay, were plundered and burned by a British squadron, under the command of the infamous Admiral Cockburn. After being repulsed in attacks upon Norfolk and Portsmouth, Virginia, in June, 1813, and after committing great outrages at Hampton, Cockburn carried many negroes away from the Carolina coast, and sold them in the West Indies.

24. On the 5th of May, 1814, the town of Oswego, in New York, on Lake Ontario, after a fierce engagement, was captured by the British, who, however, withdrew from the town two days afterward. (May 7, 1814.) On the third of July, 1814, the American army under General Jacob Brown, on the Western frontier of New York, crossed the Niagara, with General Winfield Scott and General Ripley, and captured Fort Erie on the same day. Brown advanced northward, along the west bank of the Niagara river, and, on the 5th (July, 1814), he gained a brilliant victory at Chippewa, over the British army, under General Riall.

25. The British army, under the command of Lieutenant-General Drummond, advanced toward the Niagara, and, at sunset on the 25th July, 1814, met the American army, under General Brown, at Lundy's Lane, near the thundering cataract of Niagara, where a sanguinary battle

ensued, which ended at midnight, without a decisive result. Each party had lost over 800 men. Generals Brown and Scott, the American commanders, were both wounded. On the 26th (July, 1814), the American army retired to Fort Erie.

26. On the 15th of August, the British army under Drummond attempted to take Fort Erie by assault, but was repulsed with the loss of 1,000 men. After the British had besieged the fort for more than a month, they were driven from their entrenchments, on the 17th of September, by a party of Americans who sallied from the fort. The enemy then retreated to Chippewa; and in November, the Americans destroyed Fort Erie, and recrossed to the New York side of the Niagara river.

27. When informed that General Izard, the American commander at Plattsburgh, in New York, on Lake Champlain, had gone to the Niagara frontier with 5,000 of his troops to reinforce General Brown, leaving only 1,500 under General Macomb at Plattsburgh, Sir George Prevost, who commanded 14,000 veteran troops on the St. Lawrence, advanced toward Plattsburgh, before which place he appeared on the 6th of September. Each party had, during the summer, constructed a small squadron on Lake Champlain. On Sunday morning, September 11th, 1814, the British squadron, under Commodore Downie, attacked the American squadron, under Commodore Macdonough, off Plattsburgh; and after a fierce engagement of several hours, every British vessel surrendered to Macdonough. On the same day, the British land forces of 12,000 men under Prevost, which had attacked the little American army under Macomb, at Plattsburgh, was defeated and compelled to retreat hastily toward Canada.

28. In the meantime, the British had blockaded the whole New England coast, and had taken possession of Eastport, Machias, and Belfast, in Maine. A British squadron under Commodore Hardy had bombarded and cannonaded Stonington, in Connecticut, for four days, when the enemy finally withdrew on the 14th of August. Property on the New England coast was destroyed by British marauding parties.

29. About the middle of August, 1814, a British fleet under Admiral Cochrane sailed up the Patuxent, and landed 5,000 troops

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Fort Erie.**

**Invasion of
New York—
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under General Ross, who defeated the Americans under General Winder, at Bladensburg, on the 24th of August, and, entering Washington City on the same day, burned the Capitol, the President's House, and other public and private buildings, and then quickly returned to their shipping.

**Invasion of Maryland—
Capture of Washington.**

30. Encouraged by their success at Washington, the enemy threatened Baltimore with an attack. With about 8,000 British troops, Ross landed at North Point, on the 12th of September, 1814, and, after a desperate engagement, seven miles from Baltimore, on the same day, in which Ross was killed, the Americans, under General Stricker, were compelled to fall back behind the defenses of Baltimore. The British squadron which had ineffectually bombarded Fort McHenry, garrisoned by a few Americans, under Major Armistead, a few miles below Baltimore, finally withdrew with the land troops, on the morning of the 14th (September, 1814), and the attempt to take Baltimore was abandoned.

Attack on Baltimore repulsed.

31. The subjugation of the Creek Indians by General Jackson did not put an end to the war in the South. The Spaniards of Florida permitted the British to make the town of Pensacola a base of operations. From this point, a force of British troops and fugitive Creek warriors marched into Alabama, and attacked Fort Bowyer (now Fort Morgan), below Mobile, on the 15th of September, 1814, but were repulsed with heavy loss. Failing to obtain satisfaction from the Spanish Governor of Florida for sheltering the enemies of the United States, Jackson marched from Mobile, with 2,000 Tennesseans, against Pensacola, which he seized on the 7th of November, after driving the British to their shipping.

Jackson's invasion of Florida.

32. After returning to Mobile, Jackson was called to New Orleans, to defend that city against an unexpected attack from the British army and navy. On the 14th of December, 1814, a British fleet captured an American flotilla in Lake Borgne. A British army of 12,000 men, under General Pakenham, landed in Louisiana, and soon appeared below New Orleans. After being repulsed in an attack upon the British camp, on the night of the 23d of December, 1814, Jackson placed his little army of 3,000 men, mostly Tennessee militia, be-

**Invasion of Louisiana—
Battles near New Orleans.**

hind strong intrenchments, three miles below New Orleans, and extending from the Mississippi river to an impenetrable cypress swamp, where he was soon reinforced by about 3,000 Kentucky militia, increasing his army to 6,000 men. The British opened a cannonade on the American works on the 28th of December, 1814, and again on New Year's day, in 1815. At length, on the 8th of January, 1815, the whole British army, 12,000 strong, with Pakenham at its head, advanced to open a grand attack upon the Americans, who opened a deadly musketry and artillery fire on the advancing enemy. The British troops at length wavered and began to flee, and, while endeavoring to rally them, General Pakenham was killed. The whole British army retreated to their ships, and this sanguinary battle ended in a glorious victory for the Americans. The British lost 2,000 killed and wounded, while the Americans lost only seven killed and six wounded. This victory produced the liveliest joy in the United States.

33. The war was still continued with vigor on the ocean, during the years 1814 and 1815. On the 28th of March, 1814, the American frigate *Essex*, Captain Porter, was captured off the port of Valparaiso, on the coast of Chili, in South America, by the British frigate *Phæbe*, and sloop-of-war *Cherub*. On the 29th of April, 1814, the American sloop-of-war *Falcock*, Captain Warrington, captured the British brig *Epervier*, off the coast of Florida. The American sloop-of-war *Wasp*, Captain Blakeley, was lost at sea, after capturing thirteen British vessels, among which were the *Reindeer*, taken on the 28th of June, and the *Avon*, on the 1st of September, 1814. On the 16th of January, 1815, the American frigate *President*, Commodore Decatur, was captured off Long Island, by a British squadron. On the 20th of February, 1815, the American frigate *Constitution*, Commodore Stewart, captured the British sloops-of-war *Cyane* and *Levant*, off Lisbon, in Portugal, after a spirited engagement. On the 23d of March, 1815, the American sloop-of-war *Hornet*, Captain Biddle, captured the British brig *Penguin*, in the South Atlantic Ocean.

34. The Federalists had all along been strenuously opposed to the war, and had thrown every obstacle in the way of its prosecution by the Administration. At length, in December, 1814, a convention composed of delegates from all of the New England States, and called on the

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recommendation of the Legislatures of Massachusetts and Con-
 necticut, assembled at Hartford, Connecticut, to consider the griev-
 ances of the people caused by the war, and to adopt measures to
 bring about its speedy termination. The proceedings of this con-
 vention, which were secret, were regarded by many as treason-
 able. Soon after the adjournment of the convention, the Legisla-
 tures of Massachusetts and Connecticut passed several laws which
 were in direct opposition to the laws of the United States; and a
 feared collision between the governments of the States and the
 National Government was only prevented by the arrival of intel-
 ligence that a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent, in Bel-
 gium, on the 24th of December, 1814, by American and British
 commissioners. The President proclaimed peace on the 18th of
 February, 1815. The treaty left unsettled all the issues which
 had led to the war.

35. No sooner was the war with England terminated, than the
 United States was obliged to engage in a short war with the
 piratical Barbary State of Algiers, in Northern Africa. **War with
 Algiers.** Under the impression that the navy of the United
 States had been almost destroyed by that of Great Britain, the Algerines had become extremely insolent, and com-
 mitted depredations upon American commerce in the Mediterranean,
 sea. Commodore Decatur, who was immediately sent to the Med-
 iterranean with a United States squadron, captured two Algerine
 vessels on the 17th of June, 1815; and, on the 28th (June, 1815),
 he appeared before the city of Algiers, and demanded that all
 Americans held as prisoners should be set at liberty, that all de-
 stroyed American property should be indemnified, and that all
 claims to tribute from the United States in future should be re-
 linquished. Two days afterward (June 30, 1815), the Dey, or
 ruler of Algiers, greatly alarmed, assented to Decatur's conditions,
 and a treaty of peace was signed. Decatur also obtained satis-
 faction from the rulers of Tunis, Tripoli, and Morocco; and
 thenceforth American commerce was not disturbed in the Med-
 iterranean sea. The United States was the first power that made
 any determined efforts to stop the piratical proceedings of the
 Barbary States.

36. Two new States were admitted into the Union during the
 Administration of Mr. Madison;—Louisiana, in April, 1812, and

Admission of Louisiana and Indiana. Indiana, in December, 1816. In the autumn of 1817, the Republican candidate for President, James Monroe, of Virginia, was elected by a large majority, with Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, as Vice-President.

CHAPTER CXXI.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1817—MARCH 4, 1825).

Inauguration of Monroe. 1. MR. MONROE was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1817. He selected a Cabinet of able men; and entered upon the duties of his office with vigor, at a time when the Republic was recovering from the effects of the late war with England, when American commerce and manufactures were reviving, and when the nation was starting on a new and glorious career of prosperity, wealth, power, and greatness.

2. During the war with England, the prices of various commodities had become so high that the numerous manufacturing establishments in the United States had enjoyed a great degree of prosperity; but when, on the return of peace, British goods flooded the country at low prices, these establishments ceased to flourish, and thousands were compelled to seek other occupations. This sudden change in the pecuniary condition of so many thousands, led to so large and rapid an emigration to the vast region west of the Alleghanies, which awaited the industry of the agriculturist, that in less than ten years four new and prosperous States had grown up in the recent vast wilderness.

Indian War in the South—Conquest of Florida. 3. In the latter part of 1814; the Seminole and Creek Indians began a series of murderous attacks upon the white settlers of Southern Georgia. General Jackson, with some Tennessee troops, marched against the hostile Indian. With the belief that the Creeks were protected by the Spanish authorities of Florida, Jackson marched into that country, captured the post of St. Mark's, sent the Spanish authorities to Pensacola, and afterwards to Havana, in Cuba, and hanged Alexander Arbuthnot and Robert C. Ambrister, British

subjects, who were known to have excited the Indians to war. These proceedings led to a treaty, by which Spain ceded all of the Floridas to the United States; and, in February, 1821, that country was organized as a Territory. In 1818, a treaty with Great Britain fixed the boundary line between the United States and British America at forty-nine degrees north latitude, from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.

4. Five new States were admitted into the Union during Monroe's Administration: Mississippi, in 1817; Illinois, in 1818; Alabama, in 1819; Maine in 1820; and Missouri, in 1821. When the proposition for the admission of

**Admission of
Five New
States.**

Missouri was brought forward in Congress, in 1819, angry debates arose as to whether it should be admitted as a Free or a Slave State. This was the first great contest for supremacy in the Republic, between the friends and the opponents of slavery. It was finally agreed, in 1820, by a compromise, that Missouri should be admitted as a Slave State, and that slavery should be allowed in all territory south of its southern boundary, thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude, and prohibited in all territory north and west of these limits. This is known as "The Missouri Compromise." Under this compromise, Missouri became a State on the 21st of August, 1821.

5. In the autumn of 1820, Monroe and Tompkins were re-elected President and Vice-President, by an almost unanimous Electoral vote. The old Federalist party was almost

extinct, and the Administration was very popular.

**Re-election
of Monroe.**

Among the important events of the Administration of Monroe, was the recognition of the independence of Mexico and the South American Republics by the United States, when the President declared, as a principle, "that the American continents are not henceforth to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." This is known as "The Monroe Doctrine."

6. In August, 1824, the beloved Lafayette arrived in the United States, as the guest of the nation for whose independence he had fought so valiantly nearly half a century before.

During a period of eleven months, he visited twenty States of the Union, being everywhere received with demonstrations of gratitude. When he was ready

**Visit of La-
fayette to the
United States.**

to leave the American shores, the frigate *Brandywine*, in compliment to him, conveyed him back to his delightful France.

7. In the Autumn of 1824, there were four candidates in the field for the Presidency. As not one of them had received a majority of the Electoral vote, the election was carried to the House of Representatives, when John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, son of President John Adams, was chosen President, and John Caldwell Calhoun, of South Carolina, was elected Vice-President.

**Election of
John Quincy
Adams.**

CHAPTER CXXII.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1825 — MARCH 4, 1829).

1. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1825, when the United States was at peace with all the world. In the earlier part of his Administration, there was a controversy between the National Government and the State of Georgia, concerning the removal of the Indians within the borders of that State. The National Government had agreed to remove the Indians to the region west of the Mississippi river, when it could be done peaceably. The Governor of Georgia, assuming State supremacy, threatened to remove them immediately; the National Government interfered in behalf of the Indians, and the difficulty would perhaps have ended in civil war, had not the Indians, in consideration of a large annuity which was to be paid to them from the National Treasury, agreed to remove peacefully to the country west of the Mississippi.

**Inauguration
of John
Quincy
Adams.**

2. John Quincy Adams' Administration is celebrated for various internal improvements. The great Erie Canal, which connects the Hudson River with Lake Erie, in the State of New York, was completed in 1825, through the exertions of the distinguished De Witt Clinton. The first railroad in the United States was finished in Quincy, Massachusetts, in 1827.

**Erie Canal
—First Rail-
road.**

3. The fiftieth anniversary of American Independence, on the 4th of July, 1826, was made memorable by a strange coincidence,

which made a profound impression throughout the United States. On that day, John Adams died at Quincy, Massachusetts, and Thomas Jefferson, at Monticello, Virginia. These two statesmen had been the most earnest advocates of Independence, each had signed the great Declaration, each had been a member of the Congress, afterwards Vice-President, and lastly President of the United States.

A strange coincidence.

4. It was during the Administration of John Quincy Adams, that the principle of encouraging home manufactures by imposing duties on foreign articles of the same kind, became a settled national policy in the United States, and was called "The American System." That policy was

The American System.

very popular with the manufacturers of the Northern section of the Union; but the planters of the cotton-growing states, who found a ready market for their cotton in England, opposed it. A tariff enacted in 1828, was made to appear very unjust to the Southern planters, by John C. Calhoun and other Southern politicians, who taught the doctrines of "State Rights" and "Nullification."

5. In the presidential election of 1828, General Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, was chosen President of the United States, and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was re-elected Vice-President.

Election of Jackson.

CHAPTER CXXIII.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1829—MARCH 4, 1837).

GENERAL JACKSON was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1829, seventh President of the United States. He formed a cabinet from his political friends; and entered upon the duties of his exalted station with a determined will, and with incorruptible integrity. In 1832, President Jackson came into collision with the Supreme Court of the United States, respecting the removal of the Creek and Cherokee Indians from Georgia. The authorities of Georgia threatened to remove them by force; and when the Supreme Court decided against the claims of that State, the President sided

Inauguration of Jackson—His collision with the Supreme Court.

the charges of treason, murder, and exciting slaves to insurrection, and was hanged on the 2d of December, 1859, under the laws of Virginia. It was thought by the people of the Slave States that Brown was only the agent of a large party in the Free States who had formed a plot to free all the slaves; and, during the next session of Congress, a committee, with Mr. Mason, of Virginia, the author of the Fugitive Slave Laws of 1850, as chairman, was appointed in the United States Senate to investigate the matter, when it was proven that Brown had no other accomplices than his immediate followers, fifteen or sixteen in number.

6. There were four candidates for the Presidency in 1860. The portion of the Democratic party from the Free States nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, while the portion from the Slave States nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky. A new party, called "The Constitutional Union Party," nominated John Bell, of Tennessee. The Republican or anti-slavery party nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois. The election was decided in favor

Lincoln. Black Hawk was made prisoner, and taken to the principal Eastern cities, in order that he might be impressed with the number and power of the white people.

4. At the close of Jackson's first term, a serious difficulty between the United States and France threatened to end in a war between the two nations. The French Government did not promptly comply with the agreement to indemnify the United States for French spoliations on American commerce during the wars of Napoleon. But the resolute stand taken by President Jackson caused France to pay the claim justly demanded by the United States; and the difficulty ended. In the autumn of 1832, Jackson was re-elected President, with Martin Van Buren, of New York, as Vice-President.

5. The tariff-law of 1828 was still a source of bitter complaint to the Southern States; and in November, 1832, South Carolina, through a State convention assembled at Charleston, declared the tariff-laws to be unconstitutional, null and void. Assuming that the enforcement of those laws would be a sufficient cause for South Carolina to separate herself from the Union, that State prepared to resist the collection of duties in the port of Charleston by force of arms. At this crisis, President Jackson issued a proclamation against the South Carolina

**Election of
Lincoln.**

**Trouble with
France.**

**Rebellion in
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Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President of the Confederacy, with Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, as Vice-President.

10. Most of the property of the National Government in the seceded States, such as forts, arsenals, mints, ships, and custom houses,—were seized by the conspirators, who raised armies to uphold their treason and to subvert the Republic. In February, 1861, General Twiggs, who commanded the United States troops in Texas, surrendered his whole force to the authorities of that State. Fortress Monroe, in South-eastern Virginia, and the forts on the Dry Tortugas, off the southern coast of Florida, remained in the possession of the National Government; and Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, Florida, was saved from falling into the hands of the conspirators by the gallant conduct of its commander, Lieutenant Adam J. Slemmer. Fort Sumter, at Charleston, South Carolina, was held by Major Robert Anderson. On the 9th of January, 1861 the Government steamer *Star of the West* was fired upon by South Carolinians, while bringing reinforcements to Fort Sumter.

Major Dade, and killed all but four of them. In December, 1835, General Clinch defeated the Seminoles on the banks of the Withlacoochee; and on the 29th of February, 1836, General Gaines defeated them near the same place. On the 11th of July, 1836, a circular was issued from the Treasury Department, requiring collectors of the public revenue to receive only gold and silver in payment. This circular, known as "The Specie Circular," created much bitter feeling against President Jackson.

7. Two new states were admitted into the Union during the Administration of General Jackson;—Arkansas, in June, 1836, and Michigan, in January, 1837. In the autumn of 1836, Martin Van Buren, of New York, the Democratic candidate for the office of President of the United States, was elected. As the people had failed to elect a Vice-President, Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, was chosen as such by the United States Senate.

CHAPTER CXXIV.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1837—MARCH 4, 1841).

1. MR. VAN BUREN was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1837,

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1861—APRIL 15, 1864).

1. On the 4th of March, 1861, Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated sixteenth President of the United States. The conspirators at Montgomery, having determined upon war, sent several thousand troops, under the command of Pierre G. T. Beauregard, to Charleston, South Carolina, for the purpose of seizing Fort Sumter. Beauregard demanded the surrender of the fort. Its commander, Major Robert Anderson, refused to comply with this demand; and, on the 14th of April, 1861, Beauregard opened a heavy bombardment on the fort, which continued the following day, and, on the 14th April, 1861, Anderson and his men evacuated the fort, which was immediately taken possession of and garrisoned by the insurgents, and sailed for New York. News of this event spread through the loyal States like

Zachary Taylor defeated the Seminoles near Lake Okechobee. This destructive war ended in 1842, after a continuance of seven years.

3. The peaceful relations between the Governments of the United States and Great Britain were disturbed in 1837, by a rebellion in Canada, which had for its object the establishment of the independence of that country. The leaders of the revolt were Louis Joseph Papineau, in Canada East, and William Lyon Mackenzie, in Canada West. Great Britain was offended because hundreds of citizens of the United States crossed the borders of New York into Canada, to aid the rebellious Canadians. The danger of war was averted by the prompt action of the President of the United States and of the Governor of New York, who issued proclamations declaring that all who crossed the border to aid the insurgents, would forfeit all claim to the protection of the Government of the United States.

4. The peace between the United States and Great Britain was also threatened by a dispute about the boundary between the State of Maine and the British province of New Brunswick. The inhabitants of Maine and New Brunswick were only prevented from settling the

**Rebellion in
Canada.**

**The Maine
boundary
dispute.**

sued. Several of the troops were killed and wounded; and nine of the mob were killed, and many others wounded.

5. As armed Confederates were continually pouring into Virginia for the purpose of seizing the national capital, the President, on the 3d of May, called for 64,000 more men for the national army, and 18,000 men for the navy. **More troops called.** Before the middle of June (1861), Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee had withdrawn from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy.

6. The President, on the 15th of April, 1864, summoned Congress to meet on the 4th of July. When it assembled there were about 300,000 troops in the field to defend the old flag and to preserve the integrity of the Union. **Meeting of Congress.** Congress authorized the raising of 500,000 men, and appropriated five hundred million dollars to defray the expenses of the war.

7. More than 100,000 Confederate troops were stationed at

HARRISON'S AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1841—MARCH 4, 1845)

1. GENERAL HARRISON took the oath of office on the 4th of March, 1841, as ninth President of the United States. On the 17th of March (1841), the new President issued a proclamation calling an extra session of Congress, to begin on the 31st of May, of that year. The hopes of the people of the United States that a new career of prosperity was about to dawn upon the Nation by a change of policy, were soon dispelled by the death of President Harrison, which occurred on the 4th of April, 1841, just one month after his inauguration. **Harrison's inauguration and death.**

2. In accordance with the requirements of the National Constitution, the Vice-President, John Tyler, was immediately inaugurated President of the United States. The extra session of Congress called by Harrison, commenced on the 31st of May, and ended on the 13th of September. (1841.) Two bills which had been passed for the re-charter of the United States bank were vetoed by President Tyler. All the members of the Cabinet, with the exception of Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, dissatisfied with the action of the President in respect to the bank, charging him with violating the pledges which he had made to the party which had elected him to the Vice-Presidency, immediately resigned their offices. **Tyler made President.**

officers,—Lieutenant John T. Greble and Major Theodore Winthrop. On the day after the national disaster at Big Bethel, June 11, 1861, a few national troops, under General Lewis Wallace, dispersed 500 Confederates at Romney, in Western Virginia. One month later, July 11, 1861, 3,000 Confederate troops, under Colonel Pegram, were defeated at Rich Mountain, in Western Virginia, after a spirited action with the National troops under General William S. Rosecrans.

10. On the 18th of July, 1861 the national army of 50,000 men, in Virginia, under General Irwin McDowell, left Fairfax Court-House, to attack the Confederates under General Beauregard, at Manassas Junction, about thirty miles from Washington. A stubborn contest was fought at Blackburn's Ford, near Contreville, on the same day. Three days afterward, July 21, 1861, a sanguinary and memorable battle was fought at Bull's Run, near Manassas Junction. At the moment that the Confederates were about to lose the field, they received reinforcements from the Shenandoah Valley, under General

**The Texas
question—
Election of
Polk.**

pendence of Mexico in the battle of San Jacinto, in April, 1836, after a bloody war, was warmly discussed in the United States during the last year of Tyler's Administration. The annexation of this Republic, in which slavery existed, was violently opposed in the Northern States, because it would increase the territorial extent and political power of slavery; while it was advocated in the Southern States for that very reason. In the autumn of 1844, James Knox Polk, of Tennessee, who was in favor of the annexation of Texas, was elected President of the United States, with George Mifflin Dallas, of Pennsylvania, as Vice-President.

5. The first use ever made of the Electro-Magnetic Telegraph,—the invention of Professor Samuel Finley Breece Morse,—was in 1844, in sending to Washington the account of the proceedings of the Democratic National Convention at Baltimore, which nominated Mr. Polk as a candidate for the Presidency. On the 3d of March, 1845, the day before he retired from the Presidency, Mr. Tyler signed a bill for the admission of Florida and Iowa into the Union of States.

**Electro-Mag-
netic tele-
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fought with 20,000 Confederates, under Generals Stirling Price and Ben McCullough, the battle of Wilson's Creek, near Springfield, Missouri. In this battle, Lyon was killed while gallantly fighting at the head of his troops. The slaughter on both sides was terrific. The result of the battle was that the National troops were obliged to fall back.

12. On the 26th of August, 1861, Forts Clarke and Hatteras, on Hatteras Inlet, on the coast of North Carolina, were captured by the National army and navy, under General Benjamin F. Butler and Commodore Stringham. This victory gave the National troops a foothold in North Carolina which they never lost.

**Capture of
Hatteras
Inlet.**

13. The people of West Virginia had from the beginning of the Civil War been opposed to secession, and they persisted in refusing to place themselves under the rule of the Confederate government and the rebel State government of Virginia. Representatives from about forty of the western counties of Virginia met in a convention at

**Loyalty of
the People
of West Vir-
ginia.**

became a State of the American Union. Mexico, Texas, which had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, and which still regarded that country as a part of her territory, immediately prepared for war with the United States, and recalled her minister, General Almonte, from Washington.

**Texas, Mex-
ico war with
Mexico.**

3. President Polk now ordered General Zachary Taylor to advance into Texas with 1500 troops, to protect that State from invasion, and to take post near the Rio Grande, as an army of observation. In March, 1846, Taylor left his camp at Corpus Christi, and, having established a depot of supplies at Point Isabel, advanced to the mouth of the Rio Grande, opposite the Mexican city of Matamoras, where he erected Fort Brown.

**General Tay-
lor in Texas.**

Being informed that the Mexicans were crossing the Rio Grande above Fort Brown, Taylor sent sixty dragoons, under Captain Thornton, to reconnoitre. These were surprised, on the 26th of April, 1846, by the Mexicans, and, after losing sixteen men, were made prisoners, Captain Thornton alone escaping by a leap of his horse. This was the first blood shed in the war between the United States and Mexico.

**First blood-
shed in the
war with
Mexico.**

Leaving a small garrison in Fort Brown, Taylor marched

under General Evans. The National troops were defeated and routed, with the loss of many brave men, among whom was the gallant Colonel Edward D. Baker, late a United States Senator from Oregon.

16. On the 7th of November, 1861, a force of National troops, under General Ulysses Simpson Grant, was defeated at Belmont, in South-eastern Missouri, on the Mississippi river, by the Confederates under General Cheatham. On the day of the battle of Belmont (November 7, 1861), Forts Walker and Beauregard, at Port Royal Entrance, on the coast of South Carolina, below Charleston, were captured by a National naval force under Commodore Dupont. The capture of Port Royal gave the National forces possession of the Sea Islands of South Carolina, so celebrated for the production of the finest cotton.

17. On the 1st of November, 1861, General McClellan was made commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, the veteran General Winfield Scott having resigned that post in

"Army of the West," under General Stephen W. Kearney, was assembled at Fort Leavenworth, to invade New Mexico, and to co-operate with the Pacific fleet; an "Army of the Centre," under General John Ellis Wool, was collected at San Antonio de Bexar, in Texas, to invade Mexico from that point; and "The Army of Occupation," under General Taylor, was largely reinforced by the new volunteers.

On the 18th of May, 1846, General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande into Mexico, and took possession of the city of Matamoras. In August, 1846, Taylor at the head of 6,000 men, marched against the city of Monterey, which, after a siege and assault of four days, he captured, on the 24th of September, with its garrison of 9,000 Mexican troops under General Ampudia. After this triumph, Taylor advanced farther into Mexico; and, after being joined by General Wool, he took possession of Victoria, the capital of the State of Tamaulipas, on the 29th of December.

Early in 1847, a large part of Taylor's army was sent to assist General Scott in the siege of Vera Cruz, so that Taylor was left in command of only 5,000 men, to oppose 20,000 Mexicans gathering at San Luis Potosi, under General Santa Anna. On the 23d of February, a fierce battle was fought between the armies of Taylor and

**Battle of
Buena Vista.**

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...y, and General Cyrus B. Grant and Commodore Andrew H. Foote. On the 16th of February, after a seige and assault of three days, Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland river, in the same State, was surrendered, with its garrison of 13,000 Confederate troops, to the National army of 40,000 men under General Grant. The Confederate troops that had garrisoned the fort were commanded by General Simon Bolivar Buckner. Before the surrender, 5,000 Confederates, under Generals Pillow and Floyd, made their escape.

Capture of
Fort Henry
and Donel-
son.

21. On the 6th, 7th, and 8th of March, 1862, the National army under General Samuel R. Curtis fought a severe battle with the Confederate troops under Generals Earl Van Dorn, Stirling Price, and Ben McCullough, at Pea Ridge, in North Western Arkansas. The Confederates were defeated; and among their killed was General McCullough.

Battle of
Pea Ridge.

22. On the day of the National victory at Pea Ridge (March

United States troops, assisted by the United States navy, under Commodores Sloat and Stockton. On the 18th of February, 1847, Kearney proclaimed the annexation of California to the United States.

4. In accordance with the orders of General Kearney, Colonel Doniphan, with 1,000 Missouri volunteers, forced the Navajo Indians to make a treaty of peace with the United States, on the 22d of March, 1846, and then proceeded to join General Wool. Doniphan defeated the Mexicans, under General Ponce de Leon, at Bracito, on Christmas day, 1846; and at Sacramento, on the 28th of February, 1847, he gained a victory which gave him possession of Chihuahua, a city of 40,000 inhabitants, and the capital of the State of the same name. After a march of 5,000 miles, Doniphan joined General Wool at Saltillo, on the 22d of March, 1847. The conquest of Northern Mexico and California was now complete, and General Winfield Scott had just commenced, at Vera Cruz, a campaign which ended in the reduction of the Mexican capital and the military occupation of the heart of the Mexican Republic.

Doniphan's
Exploits in
Mexico.

5. On the 9th of March, 1847, a United States army of 12,000 men under General Scott, and a squadron under Commodore Conner, appeared before Vera Cruz, and soon completely invested the city. After a vigorous siege and bombardment, the City of Vera

which the National gunboats in the Tennessee river rendered to Grant's army. Among the Confederate killed was General Albert Sydney Johnson.

25. On the day of Grant's victory at Shiloh (April 7, 1862), the strong post of Island No. 10. in the Mississippi river was surrendered to Commodore Foote, whose flotilla had bombarded the place for three weeks.

26. On the 11th of April (1862), Fort Pulaski, at the mouth of the Savannah river, in Georgia, after withstanding a heavy bombardment, surrendered to the National troops under Captain Quincy Adams Gillmore. On the same day, General Ormsby McKnight Mitchell, after a remarkable forced march through Kentucky and Tennessee, captured Huntsville, in Northern Alabama. On the 25th of April, Fort Macon, on the coast of North Carolina, was surrendered to the National troops, after a severe bombardment.

27. In the South-west, an expedition had been organized for

Capital. they rested until August, after a series of victories almost unparalleled in the annals of war.

8. After having received reinforcements, Scott left Puebla, on the 7th of August, 1847, and resumed his march toward the Mexican capital; and on the 10th (August, 1847), the American troops saw the extensive valley of Mexico before them. Lakes, plains, cities, and cloud-capped mountains burst upon their gaze. Away in the distance was seen the great city of the Montezumas, with its lofty domes and towers. But between that city and the American army were strong fortifications, and a Mexican army of 30,000 men, under Santa Anna, to be overcome.

9. On the 20th of August, 1847, the American army, after a bloody struggle, carried the Mexican camp of Contreras by assault.

Battle of Contreras, San Antonio, and Churubusco. On the same day, the Americans took the strong fortress of San Antonio, and gained a brilliant victory over the Mexicans at Churubusco. Santa Anna's army, virtually annihilated, fled to the capital. During this bloody day, the Mexicans lost 4,000 men killed and wounded, and 3,000 were made prisoners by the victorious Americans.

10. Scott now offered the Mexicans peace. Santa Anna asked for an armistice, which Scott granted; but, when informed that

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Williamsburg, which resulted in a national victory. The Confederates then resumed their retreat, and were again pursued by the National forces. On the 10th of May, 1862, five days after the battle of Williamsburg, Norfolk was evacuated by the Confederates, after they had destroyed the *Merrimac*, and the town was entered on the same day by National troops under the command of General John Ellis Wool.

30. On the 29th of May, Hanover Court-House was captured by a portion of the National army, under General Fitz-John Porter, after a spirited conflict. The National army still continued its advance towards Richmond. On the 31st of May and the 1st of June (1862), a memorable engagement occurred at a place called Fair Oaks, in which neither party was victorious.

31. On the 12th of May the National fleet under Admiral Farragut captured Natchez, in Mississippi, on the Mississippi River.

**Battle of
Williamsburg.**
**Capture of
Hanover
Court-House.**

treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, New Mexico and California became Territories of the United States, while the United States Government agreed to pay to Mexico \$15,000,000 for the ceded territory, and to assume the debts due by the Mexican Government to American citizens.

13. In May, 1848, Wisconsin was admitted into the Union as a State. In the autumn of the same year, General Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, whose great military achievements in Mexico had made him a popular favorite, was elected President of the United States, with Millard Fillmore, of New York, as Vice President.

**Admission of
Wisconsin.**

CHAPTER CXXVII.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

SLAVERY AGITATION AND THE CIVIL WAR. TAYLOR'S AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATIONS (MARCH 4, 1849 — MARCH 4, 1853).

1. As the 4th of March, 1849, fell on the Sabbath, the inauguration of President Taylor did not take place until the 5th. The agitation of the slavery question was revived during the first year of Taylor's Administration, by the action of the people of California, who, in a convention

**Inauguration
of Taylor.**

**The Seven
Days' Bat-
tles.**

the base of his supplies from the York to the James river. These movements led to a series of sanguinary battles near Richmond, during seven days, commencing on the 25th of June, and ending with the repulse of the Confederates at Malvern Hill on the 1st of July. The most important engagements were the battle of Oak Grove, June 25; the battle of Mechanicsville, June 26; the battle of Gaines' Mills, June 27; the battle of Peach Orchard Station and Savage Station, June 29; the battle of White Oak Swamp, June 30; and the battle of Malvern Hill, July 1. Each army numbered about 100,000 men. The National army lost 16,000 men, and the insurgents about 20,000; and McClellan's movement on Richmond failed.

34. On the 1st of July, the President of the United States General Halleck called for 300,000 more men for the army; and, on the 11th of the same month, General Henry W. Halleck was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States.

3. While the slavery question was absorbing the attention of Congress and the Nation, President Taylor was attacked by a sudden illness, of which he died on the 9th of July, 1850. In accordance with the provisions of the National Constitution, the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore, took the oath of office on the following day, and immediately assumed the duties of President of the United States.

4. After four months' discussion, Mr. Clay's compromise measures were passed by both Houses of Congress, and after receiving the signature of President Fillmore, on the 9th of September, 1850, became a law of the Republic; and California entered the Union as a Free State. The Compromise Act, as it was called, provided, 1st. For the admission of California as a Free State; 2d. For the erection of the Mormon settlements into a Territory called Utah, without mention of slavery; 3d. For the erection of New Mexico into a Territory without mention of slavery, and the payment of ten millions of dollars to Texas in purchase of her claims to a large portion of New Mexico; 4th. For the abolition of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia; and 5th. For the arrest and return to their masters of all fugitive slaves who should

**Death of
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...battle of Groveton, August 29; the second battle of Bull's Run, August 30; and the battle of Chantilly, September 1. In the last named conflict, Generals Stevens and Kearney were among the killed on the National side. The Confederate loss in this series of battles was 15,000 men, while the National loss was 20,000 men. Pope's army was so badly defeated that, to escape total destruction, it was compelled to seek safety behind the fortifications of Washington.

38. Early in September, the Armies of Virginia and the Potomac were consolidated, and were thereafter known as "The Army of the Potomac," the command of which ^{Lee's invasion} was entrusted to General McClellan, for the de- of Maryland. fence of Washington. The Confederates, under the command of Robert Edmund Lee, their commander-in-chief, now crossed the Potomac into Maryland. McClellan followed on their right flank, to cover Washington and Baltimore.

39. On the 14th of September, 1862, a heavy battle was fought

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...the Mesilla Valley was claimed
by both the Territory of New Mexico and the Mexican State of Chihuahua; and Santa Anna, who had again become President of Mexico early in 1854, caused Chihuahua to take armed possession of the disputed territory. The dispute was settled in 1854; and the Mesilla Valley came, by purchase, into the possession of the United States.

1. During Pierce's Administration, naval expeditions were sent by the United States Government to explore the North Pacific Ocean, between the Pacific shores of America and Asia. Land expeditions were sent across the continent, to ascertain the most practicable route for a railroad to the Pacific Ocean. In the summer of 1854, a treaty of commerce and friendship was made with the Emperor of Japan, by Commodore Matthew C. Perry on the part of the Government of the United States.

3. The agitation of the slavery question was suddenly revived in the beginning of 1854, by a bill reported in the United States Senate by Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, proposing the organization of the vast region between the Missouri river and the Rocky mountains into two Territories, one to be named Kansas and the other Nebraska, and leaving the

Bragg, invaded the more western portion of Kentucky, and advanced in the direction of Louisville; but, after suffering a defeat at Perryville, from the National forces under Generals Rousseau and McCook, Bragg was compelled to abandon Kentucky with his army. Smith and his army also evacuated the State about the same time. (October, 1862.)

42. In the autumn of 1862, events of great importance were transpiring in North-eastern Mississippi. On the 19th of September, the Confederates under Generals Van Dorn and Price were defeated at Iuka, by the National troops commanded by General Rosecrans. On the 3d and 4th of October, the Confederates met with another severe defeat at Corinth. The Confederates were pursued, and defeated on the 5th of October (1862), in "the battle of the Hatchie," by the National troops under Generals Ord and Hurlburt.

43. About three weeks after the battle of Antietam, a Confederate cavalry force, under General Stuart, made a destructive raid as

natural consequence, there was civil war in the Territory for several years.

5. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and the encroachments of the slave power, led to the formation of a new political organization called "The Republican Party," whose leading principle was opposition to the extension of slavery into the Territories of the Republic. This party, which had its entire strength in the Free States, nominated Colonel John Charles Fremont, of California, for the Presidency, in 1856. The Democratic party, which had its chief strength in the Slave States, nominated James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania. A third party, known as the Know-Nothing party, which was opposed to the influence of foreigners in American affairs, nominated ex-President Millard Fillmore, of New York. The result of the election was the choice of James Buchanan for President, and John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for Vice-President.

CHAPTER CXXIX.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1857—MARCH 4, 1861).

1. JAMES BUCHANAN was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1857, fifteenth President of the United States. Two days after

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47. At Murfreesboro', in Tennessee, a sanguinary battle, between the National army under General Rosecrans and the Confederate army under General Bragg, commenced on the 29th of December, 1862, and ended on the 4th of January, 1863. The National army gained the victory, but lost 12,000 men. The engagement is also known as "the battle of Stone River."

**Battle of
Murfrees-
boro'.**

48. During the summer of 1862, the Sioux Indians in Minnesota, led by Little Crow and other chiefs, began a murderous war on the white people of that State, by an attack upon the town of New Ulm. Many atrocious massacres were perpetrated by the savages; and about 25,000 white people were driven from their homes. At length General Henry H. Sibley defeated the Indians and drove them into Dakota. The following year the savages renewed the

**War with the
Sioux Indians
in Minnesota.**

3. The Dred Scott decision aroused the agitation of the slavery question in all its intensity, and the greatest excitement prevailed in the Free States. In 1857, measures were taken for the admission of Kansas into the Union as a Free State. A State constitution which excluded slavery from Kansas was framed at Topeka by the anti-slavery party; while the pro-slavery party framed a constitution at Leavenworth tolerating slavery within the Territory. Although the people of Kansas rejected the pro-slavery constitution, in January, 1860, by ten thousand majority, the President, in a message to Congress, recommended its acceptance by that body. Congress, however, justly decided that it should be left to a vote of the people of the Territory, who again rejected it by ten thousand majority; and, on the 29th of January, 1861, Kansas was admitted into the Union as a Free State. Two other States were admitted into the Union during Buchanan's Administration;—namely, Minnesota, in 1858, and Oregon, in 1859.

**The political
contest in
Kansas.**

4. The Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 was still obnoxious to the great body of the people of the Free States; and, to guard against any abuses of the law, the Legislatures of New York, Ohio, Maine, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Michigan, and Wisconsin passed what were called "Personal Liberty Laws." During the Administration of Bu-

**The personal
Liberty
Laws.**

chance, efforts were made by influential individuals in the Slave States to reopen the African slave-trade. Native Africans were landed on the coasts of the Southern States, in defiance of the laws. In Louisiana attempts were made to legalize the trade, under what was called "The African Apprentice System;" and the Grand Jury of Savannah openly protested against the laws when obliged to find bills against some persons engaged in the illegal slave-trade. These proceedings increased the slavery agitation, and strengthened the Republican party, which was opposed to the extension of slavery into the Territories of the United States.

5. In the autumn of 1859, great excitement was produced in the Slave States by the foolish attempt of the enthusiastic John Brown, who had been a leading anti-slavery man in Kansas, to liberate the slaves of Virginia. On the night of October 16th (1859), at the head of a few followers, Brown seized the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, intending to arm such slaves as approached. Brown did not succeed, however, in exciting a slave insurrection; and, being overpowered and made prisoner by Virginia militia and United States troops under Colonel Robert Edmund Lee, he was tried on the charges of treason, murder, and exciting slaves to insurrection, and was hanged on the 2d of December, 1859, under the laws of Virginia. It was thought by the people of the Slave States that Brown was only the agent of a large party in the Free States who had formed a plot to free all the slaves; and, during the next session of Congress, a committee, with Mr. Mason, of Virginia, the author of the Fugitive Slave Laws of 1850, as chairman, was appointed in the United States Senate to investigate the matter, when it was proven that Brown had no other accomplices than his immediate followers, fifteen or sixteen in number.

6. There were four candidates for the Presidency in 1860. The portion of the Democratic party from the Free States nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, while the portion from the Slave States nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky. A new party, called "The Constitutional Union Party," nominated John Bell, of Tennessee. The Republican or anti-slavery party nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois. The election was decided in favor

**John
Brown's
insurrection
in Virginia.**

**Election of
Lincoln.**

of Abraham Lincoln for President, and Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, for Vice-President.

7. No sooner was the election of Mr. Lincoln known throughout the United States, than the politicians of the Slave States began to carry out plans, which they had long prepared, for the dismemberment of the Union, and the establishment, in their section, of an independent confederacy of Slave States. **Conspiracy of Southern Politicians.**

8. As in 1832, South Carolina took the lead in rebellion against the National Government. A State convention, which had assembled at Charleston, declared, on the 20th of December, 1860, that State to be separated from the Union forever. Within little more than a month from the secession of South Carolina, the example of that State was followed by six other Slave States,—namely, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas. **Secession of South Carolina.**

9. On the 4th of February, 1861, delegates from the seceded States met in a Congress at Montgomery, in Alabama, and formed a Southern Confederacy, with the title of "The Confederate States of America." On the 9th of the same month, this Confederate Congress elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President of the Confederacy, with Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, as Vice-President. **Formation of a Southern Confederacy.**

10. Most of the property of the National Government in the seceded States, such as forts, arsenals, mints, ships, and custom houses,—were seized by the conspirators, who raised armies to uphold their treason and to subvert the Republic. In February, 1861, General Twiggs, who commanded the United States troops in Texas, surrendered his whole force to the authorities of that State. Fortress Monroe, in South-eastern Virginia, and the forts on the Dry Tortugas, off the southern coast of Florida, remained in the possession of the National Government; and Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, Florida, was saved from falling into the hands of the conspirators by the gallant conduct of its commander, Lieutenant Adam J. Slemmer. Fort Sumter, at Charleston, South Carolina, was held by Major Robert Anderson. On the 9th of January, 1861, the Government steamer *Star of the West* was fired upon by South Carolinians, while bringing reinforcements to Fort Sumter. **Seizure of National Property.**

11. President Buchanan made no effort to check the conspirators in their treasonable work. Several of his cabinet-officers who

Conduct of the Administration. were among the conspirators, were doing all in their power to deprive the National Government of all means for its protection against armed treason.

John B. Floyd, of Virginia, Secretary of War, transferred most of the arms from the forts and arsenals in the Free States to those in the Slave States; and Howell Cobb, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury, tried to injure the public credit and bankrupt the National treasury.

12. On the 4th of February, 1861, an assemblage, known as "The Peace Convention," met at Washington, for the professed purpose of preserving peace and saving the Union. Every just and reasonable concession for the sake of peace was rejected by the conspirators, and it was evident that they did not desire a reconciliation, from their rejection of the plan known as "The Crittenden Compromise," proposed by John S. Crittenden of Kentucky.

CHAPTER CXXX.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1861—APRIL 15, 1864).

1. ON the 4th of March, 1861, Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated sixteenth President of the United States. The conspirators at Montgomery, having determined upon war, sent several thousand troops, under the command of Pierre G. T. Beauregard, to Charleston, South Carolina, for the purpose of seizing Fort Sumter. Beauregard demanded the surrender of the fort. Its commander, Major Robert Anderson, refused to comply with this demand; and, on the 14th of April, 1861, Beauregard opened a heavy bombardment on the fort, which continued the following day, and, on the 14th April, 1861, Anderson and his men evacuated the fort, which was immediately taken possession of and garrisoned by the insurgents, and sailed for New York. News of this event spread through the loyal States like

lightning; and, like the attendant thunder-peal, it aroused every loyal heart.

2. On the day after the evacuation of Fort Sumter, April 15, 1861, the President called for 75,000 militia to serve for three months in suppressing the rebellion. The loyal people warmly responded to this call. Within a short time 200,000 men had offered their services to the National Government; and forty million dollars had been contributed to carry on the war.

Troops
Called.

3. On the 17th of April, 1861, Virginia seceded from the Union, and became a member of the Southern Confederacy. On the following day, April 18, 1861, the United States armory at Harper's Ferry was seized by the Virginia insurgents. On the 17th of April, 1861, Jefferson Davis, the President of the so-called Confederate States of America, issued letters-of-marque and reprisal, to all who would prey upon American commerce. Two days afterward, April 18, 1861, President Lincoln proclaimed the blockade of the Southern ports.

Secession of
Virginia.

4. On the 19th of April, 1861, the sixth Massachusetts regiment, while passing through Baltimore, on its way to Washington, was attacked by a mob of 10,000 men. A fight ensued. Several of the troops were killed and wounded; and nine of the mob were killed, and many others wounded.

Massachusetts
troops
attacked.

5. As armed Confederates were continually pouring into Virginia for the purpose of seizing the national capital, the President, on the 3d of May, called for 64,000 more men for the national army, and 18,000 men for the navy. Before the middle of June (1861), Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee had withdrawn from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy.

More troops
called.

6. The President, on the 15th of April, 1864, summoned Congress to meet on the 4th of July. When it assembled there were about 300,000 troops in the field to defend the old flag and to preserve the integrity of the Union. Congress authorized the raising of 500,000 men, and appropriated five hundred million dollars to defray the expenses of the war.

Meeting of
Congress.

7. More than 100,000 Confederate troops were stationed at

various points in Virginia, from Harper's Ferry to Norfolk. The chief force of the insurgents was at Manassas Junction, about thirty miles from the national capital. **Confederate troops.** On the 20th of July, 1861, the seat of the so-called Confederate Government was removed from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia.

8. The first invasion of the rebellious States took place on the 24th of May, 1861, when national troops crossed the Potomac river from Washington, and took possession of Alexandria and Arlington Heights, on the opposite side of the river. Before this invasion, May 10, 1861, Captain Nathaniel Lyon saved Missouri to the Union by the capture of an insurgent camp at St. Louis. **Invasion of Virginia.**

9. The first regular battle of the Civil War occurred at Philippi, in Western Virginia, where on the 3d of June, 1861, General Benjamin F. Kelly, with a few national troops, routed 500 Confederates. On the 19th of the same month, a severe engagement took place at Big Bethel, in south-eastern Virginia, between the national troops under General Pierce and a considerable force of Confederates. In this action the national troops were repulsed with the loss of two brave officers,—Lieutenant John T. Greble and Major Theodore Winthrop. On the day after the national disaster at Big Bethel, June 11, 1861, a few national troops, under General Lewis Wallace, dispersed 500 Confederates at Romney, in Western Virginia. One month later, July 11, 1861, 3,000 Confederate troops, under Colonel Pegram, were defeated at Rich Mountain, in Western Virginia, after a spirited action with the National troops under General William S. Rosecrans. **Battles.**

10. On the 18th of July, 1861 the national army of 50,000 men, in Virginia, under General Irwin McDowell, left Fairfax Court-House, to attack the Confederates under General Beauregard, at Manassas Junction, about thirty miles from Washington. A stubborn contest was fought at Blackburn's Ford, near Contreville, on the same day. Three days afterward, July 21, 1861, a sanguinary and memorable battle was fought at Bull's Run, near Manassas Junction. At the moment that the Confederates were about to lose the field, they received reinforcements from the Shenandoah Valley, under General

**Battle of
Bull's Run.**

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Joseph E. Johnston. The result was that the Confederates gained a complete victory; and the national army fled toward Washington in the greatest consternation. For his gallant conduct in this battle, the Confederate General Thomas Jefferson Jackson received the name of "Stonewall Jackson." The intelligence of the national misfortune at Bull's Run struck the people of the loyal States with dismay; but, instead of discouraging them, it caused them to exert themselves more vigorously for the great struggle. Large numbers of volunteers joined the army. On the day after the battle of Bull's Run, General George B. McClellan was placed in command of "The Army of the Potomac," as the forces around the national capital were named.

11. In the meantime, the war raged violently in Missouri. On the 5th of July, 1861, the National troops, under Colonel Franz Sigel, defeated the Confederates, under Clayborne F. Jackson, the disloyal governor of Missouri, at Carthage. On the 2d of August, a National force under General Nathaniel Lyon defeated the Confederates commanded by General Ben McCullough, the famous Texas Ranger, at Dug Spring, near the border of Arkansas. On the 10th of the same month (August, 1861), Lyon, at the head of 5,000 National troops, fought with 20,000 Confederates, under Generals Stirling Price and Ben McCullough, the battle of Wilson's Creek, near Springfield, Missouri. In this battle, Lyon was killed while gallantly fighting at the head of his troops. The slaughter on both sides was terrific. The result of the battle was that the National troops were obliged to fall back.

The War in Missouri.

12. On the 26th of August, 1861, Forts Clarke and Hatteras, on Hatteras Inlet, on the coast of North Carolina, were captured by the National army and navy, under General Benjamin F. Butler and Commodore Stringham. This victory gave the National troops a foothold in North Carolina which they never lost.

Capture of Hatteras Inlet.

13. The people of West Virginia had from the beginning of the Civil War been opposed to secession, and they persisted in refusing to place themselves under the rule of the Confederate government and the rebel State government of Virginia. Representatives from about forty of the western counties of Virginia met in a convention at

Loyalty of the People of West Virginia.

Wheeling, on the 11th of June, 1861; and, on the 17th, they declared West Virginia independent of the rest of the State, and elected Frank Pierpont for their Governor.

14. The Confederates of Virginia, having resolved to compel the loyal people of West Virginia to submit to their authority and that of the Confederate government, sent large bodies of troops into that region, under the command of Robert Edmund Lee, late a colonel in the United States army, Henry A. Wise, ex-Governor of Virginia, and John B. Floyd, ex-Secretary of War. Floyd was defeated by the National troops under General William S. Rosecrans, on the 12th of September, 1861, at Carnifax Ferry, on the Gauley river, in West Virginia, after a fight of three days.

15. About the middle of September, 1861, the town of Lexington, in Missouri, with its garrison of National troops under Colonel Mulligan, was captured by the Confederates. On the 16th of October (1861), Lexington was retaken by a National cavalry force under Major White. On the 21st of October, 1861, a severe action occurred at Ball's Bluff, on the Potomac, above Washington, between the National force under General Stone and a large body of insurgents under General Evans. The National troops were thoroughly defeated and routed, with the loss of many brave men, among whom was the gallant Colonel Edward D. Baker, late a United States Senator from Oregon.

16. On the 7th of November, 1861, a force of National troops, under General Ulysses Simpson Grant, was defeated at Belmont, in South-eastern Missouri, on the Mississippi river, by the Confederates under General Cheatham. On the day of the battle of Belmont (November 7, 1861), Forts Walker and Beauregard, at Port Royal Entrance, on the coast of South Carolina, below Charleston, were captured by a National naval force under Commodore Dupont. The capture of Port Royal gave the National forces possession of the Sea Islands of South Carolina, so celebrated for the production of the finest cotton.

17. On the 1st of November, 1861, General McClellan was made commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, the veteran General Winfield Scott having resigned that post in

October. Only the most important military events have been related. There were thousands of conflicts in the refractory States. The relations of the National Government with England and France were not of the most pleasant character. Both of these nations, as well as Spain, had recognized the insurgent Confederates as a belligerent power, in the beginning of the great contest. Russia was the only European power that sympathized with the National Government in its struggle for life.

18. On the 19th of January, 1862, a National force, under General George H. Thomas, defeated a Confederate army under General George B. Crittenden, at Mill Spring, near Somerset, Kentucky. The Confederate General Felix Zollicoffer was killed. **McClellan, Commander-in-Chief—Foreign Relations.**

19. On the 8th of February, 1862, after a hot conflict, Roanoke Island, on the North-eastern coast of North Carolina, was taken possession of by the National army and navy, under General Ambrose E. Burnside and Commodore Louis M. Goldsborough. **Capture of Roanoke Island.**

20. On the 6th of February (1862), Fort Henry, on the Tennessee river, in Tennessee, was captured by the National army and navy, under General Ulysses S. Grant and Commodore Andrew H. Foote. On the 16th of February, after a siege and assault of three days, Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland river, in the same State, was surrendered, with its garrison of 13,000 Confederate troops, to the National army of 40,000 men under General Grant. The Confederate troops that had garrisoned the fort were commanded by General Simon Bolivar Buckner. Before the surrender, 5,000 Confederates, under Generals Pillow and Floyd, made their escape. **Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.**

21. On the 6th, 7th, and 8th of March, 1862, the National army under General Samuel R. Curtis fought a severe battle with the Confederate troops under Generals Earl Van Dorn, Stirling Price, and Ben McCullough, at Pea Ridge, in North Western Arkansas. The Confederates were defeated; and among their killed was General McCullough. **Battle of Pea Ridge.**

22. On the day of the National victory at Pea Ridge (March

8, 1862), the Confederate iron-clad ram *Merrimac* sunk the National frigates *Cumberland* and *Congress*, at the mouth of the James river. On the following day (March 9, 1862), a newly-invented floating battery, called the *Monitor*, attacked the *Merrimac*, disabled her after a severe action, and compelled her to return to Norfolk.

23. On the 14th of March, 1862, after a severe fight with the Confederates, General Burnside, with 12,000 National troops, captured Newbern, in Eastern North Carolina. A National force under General Shields defeated the Confederates under "Stonewall Jackson," near Winchester, Virginia, on the 23d of March.

24. On the 6th of April, 1862, the National army commanded by General Grant was attacked at Shiloh church, near Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee river, in Tennessee, by the Confederates under Generals Beauregard and Albert Sydney Johnson. The Confederates were victorious on that day; but on the following morning (March 7, 1862), Grant was reinforced by a strong force under General Don Carlos Buell, and the Confederates were defeated and compelled to flee toward Corinth, in North-eastern Mississippi. The defeat of the Confederates is to be attributed chiefly to the assistance which the National gunboats in the Tennessee river rendered to Grant's army. Among the Confederate killed was General Albert Sydney Johnson.

25. On the day of Grant's victory at Shiloh (April 7, 1862), the strong post of Island No. 10. in the Mississippi river was surrendered to Commodore Foote, whose flotilla had bombarded the place for three weeks.

26. On the 11th of April (1862), Fort Pulaski, at the mouth of the Savannah river, in Georgia, after withstanding a heavy bombardment, surrendered to the National troops under Captain Quincy Adams Gillmore. On the same day, General Ormsby McKnight Mitchell, after a remarkable forced march through Kentucky and Tennessee, captured Huntsville, in Northern Alabama. On the 25th of April, Fort Macon, on the coast of North Carolina, was surrendered to the National troops, after a severe bombardment.

27. In the South-west, an expedition had been organized for

the capture of New Orleans. The expedition consisted of a gun-boat and mortar fleet, under Commodores David G. Farragut and David D. Porter, and a land force under General Benjamin F. Butler. After bombarding Forts Jackson and St. Philip, below New Orleans, for six days Farragut and Porter passed up the river with their fleets, and appeared before New Orleans on the 25th of April. The Confederate troops, 20,000 strong under General Mansfield Lovell, who had garrisoned the city, fled, and, on the 28th (April, 1862), General Butler, with the national army, took possession of the city. The capture of New Orleans was the severest blow thus far inflicted upon the Rebellion.

28. After compelling the Confederates to retreat from Manassas toward Richmond, the Army of the Potomac, under General McClellan, prepared to approach the Confederate capital by way of the peninsula formed by the York and James rivers. On the 4th of April, 1862, McClellan commenced his march up the peninsula, from Fortress Monroe. After enduring a short siege, Yorktown was evacuated by the Confederates, who fled toward Richmond. (May 8, 1862.)

29. Two days after the evacuation of Yorktown by the Confederate army (May 5th, 1862), was fought the terrible battle of Williamsburg, which resulted in a national victory. The Confederates then resumed their retreat, and were again pursued by the National forces. On the 10th of May, 1862, five days after the battle of Williamsburg, Norfolk was evacuated by the Confederates, after they had destroyed the *Merrimac*, and the town was entered on the same day by National troops under the command of General John Ellis Wool.

30. On the 29th of May, Hanover Court-House was captured by a portion of the National army, under General Fitz-John Porter, after a spirited conflict. The National army still continued its advance towards Richmond. On the 31st of May and the 1st of June (1862), a memorable engagement occurred at a place called Fair Oaks, in which neither party was victorious.

31. On the 12th of May the National fleet under Admiral Farragut captured Natchez, in Mississippi, on the Mississippi River.

**Capture of
Natches.**

On the 19th of the same month (May, 1862), Corinth, in the North-eastern part of the same State, after having suffered a heavy bombardment, was evacuated by the Confederates and taken possession of by the National army under General Henry W. Halleck. On the 6th of June, 1862, the important town of Memphis, in Tennessee, on the Mississippi river, fell into the hands of the National forces, after a severe naval engagement in which all but two vessels of the Confederate fleet were either captured or destroyed by the National squadron under the command of Flag-Officer Davis.

— 32. In the meantime, a National force of 4000 men, under General Nathaniel P. Banks, in the Shenandoah Valley, in Virginia, after being defeated near Winchester, on the 25th of May, was driven down the valley, and compelled to cross the Potomac into Maryland, by 15,000.

Confederates under Stonewall Jackson, who hastily retreated up the valley. On the 7th of June, General John C. Fremont, with National troops, fought with the Confederates an indecisive battle at Cross-Keys; and on the following day, General Shields was beaten by Stonewall Jackson, in a battle at Port Republic.

33. Three weeks after the battle of Fair-Oaks, McClellan prepared to advance upon Richmond. At the same time, he changed

**The Seven
Days' Bat-
tles.**

the base of his supplies from the York to the James river. These movements led to a series of sanguinary battles near Richmond, during seven days, commencing on the 25th of June, and ending with the repulse of the Confederates at Malvern Hill on the 1st of July. The most important engagements were the battle of Oak Grove, June 25; the battle of Mechanicsville, June 26; the battle of Gaines' Mills, June 27; the battle of Peach Orchard Station and Savage Station, June 29; the battle of White-Oak Swamp, June 30; and the battle of Malvern Hill, July 1. Each army numbered about 100,000 men. The National army lost 16,000 men, and the insurgents about 20,000; and McClellan's movement on Richmond failed.

34. On the 1st of July, the President of the United States called for 300,000 more men for the army; and, on the 11th of the same month, General Henry W. Halleck was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States.

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35. On the 5th of August, 1862, the Confederates, under General John C. Breckinridge, attacked a small National force under General Thomas Williams at **Battle of Baton Rouge**, Louisiana. The National troops were victorious, and the Confederate ram *Arkansas* was sunk, but the gallant General Williams was killed in the moment of triumph.

36. The forces under Generals Banks, Fremont, and McDowell, were united on the 25th of June (1862), into one army named "The Army of Virginia," the command of which was given to General John Pope. This army soon found sufficient employment, as the insurgents, flushed with their success over McClellan's army near Richmond, marched northward for the purpose of taking Washington. On the 9th of August, a spirited but indecisive action was fought at Cedar Mountain, in Culpepper county, Virginia, between that portion of the Army of Virginia under General Banks and a large body of insurgents under Stonewall Jackson.

37. At length, the Confederates flanked the Army of Virginia, and a succession of bloody battles were fought, beginning on the 24th of August, and ending on the 1st of September. The most important of this series of engagements were the battle of Kettle Run, August 27; the battle of Groveton, August 29; the second battle of Bull's Run, August 30; and the battle of Chantilly, September 1. In the last named conflict, Generals Stevens and Kearney were among the killed on the National side. The Confederate loss in this series of battles was 15,000 men, while the National loss was 20,000 men. Pope's army was so badly defeated that, to escape total destruction, it was compelled to seek safety behind the fortifications of Washington.

38. Early in September, the Armies of Virginia and the Potomac were consolidated, and were thereafter known as "The Army of the Potomac," the command of which was entrusted to General McClellan, for the defence of Washington. The Confederates, under the command of Robert Edmund Lee, their commander-in-chief, now crossed the Potomac into Maryland. McClellan followed on their right flank, to cover Washington and Baltimore.

39. On the 14th of September, 1862, a heavy battle was fought

at South Mountain, in Maryland, in which the National army was victorious, but one of its gallant commanders, General Reno, was killed. The next day (September 15, 1862), after a bloody conflict, Harper's Ferry, with its garrison of 12,000 National troops, was surrendered to the Confederates.

40. On the 17th of September (1862), a great battle was fought near Antietam Creek, in Maryland, between the armies of McClellan and Lee, each numbering about 100,000 men. The Confederates were defeated with the loss of 20,000 men. The National loss was about 15,000 men. Among the killed on the National side were the heroic Generals Mansfield, Richardson, and Rodman. Immediately after the battle, Lee's army fell back to the Potomac, which it crossed, and retreated in the direction of Richmond, without being pursued by the National army.

41. In the latter part of August, 1862, a large body of Confederate troops, under General E. Kirby Smith, invaded Eastern Kentucky. On the 29th and 30th of August, they defeated a part of the National army commanded by General Nelson, near Richmond, Kentucky. At the same time, another Confederate army, under General Braxton Bragg, invaded the more western portion of Kentucky, and advanced in the direction of Louisville; but, after suffering a defeat at Perryville, from the National forces under Generals Rousseau and McCook, Bragg was compelled to abandon Kentucky with his army. Smith and his army also evacuated the State about the same time. (October, 1862.)

42. In the autumn of 1862, events of great importance were transpiring in North-eastern Mississippi. On the 19th of September, the Confederates under Generals Van Dorn, Iuka, Corinth, and Price were defeated at Iuka, by the National troops commanded by General Rosecrans. On the 3d and 4th of October, the Confederates met with another severe defeat at Corinth. The Confederates were pursued, and defeated on the 5th of October (1862), in "the battle of the Hatchie," by the National troops under Generals Ord and Hurlburt.

43. About three weeks after the battle of Antietam, a Confederate cavalry force, under General Stuart, made a destructive raid as

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far as Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania. In the latter **Confederate Cavalry said:** part of October, the Army of the Potomac crossed the Potomac into Virginia. On the 5th of November (1862), McClellan was relieved of the command of the army, and General Ambrose E. Burnside was appointed to take his place.

44. The war was again raging in Arkansas. On the 7th of December, 1862, the National troops, under Gen- **Battle of Prairie Grove.** erals Herron and Blunt, gained an important victory over a Confederate army under General Hindman, at Prairie Grove, near Fayetteville, in North-western Arkansas.

45. Toward the close of 1862, another great battle was fought in Virginia. The Army of the Potomac, then under the command of General Burnside, attacked the Confederates at **Battle of Fredericksburg.** Fredericksburg, on the 13th of December (1862). After hard fighting, the National troops were repulsed, with the loss of 8,000 of their number. The Army of the Potomac then recrossed to the north side of the Rappahannock river, where it remained until May of the next year.

46. In the latter part of December, 1862, a large National force, under General William Tecumseh Sherman, **Sherman's unsuccessful attack.** made an attack on the city of Vicksburg, in Mississippi, on the Mississippi river; but was repulsed after severe fighting. Sherman was then superseded in his command by General John A. McClernand.

47. At Murfreesboro', in Tennessee, a sanguinary battle, between the National army under General Rosecrans and the Confederate army under General Bragg, commenced **Battle of Murfreesboro'.** on the 29th of December, 1862, and ended on the 4th of January, 1863. The National army gained the victory, but lost 12,000 men. The engagement is also known as "the battle of Stone River."

48. During the summer of 1862, the Sioux Indians in Minnesota, led by Little Crow and other chiefs, began a murderous war on the white people of that State, by an attack **War with the Sioux Indians in Minnesota.** upon the town of New Ulm. Many atrocious massacres were perpetrated by the savages; and about 25,000 white people were driven from their homes. At length General Henry H. Sibley defeated the Indians and drove them into Dakota. The following year the savages renewed the

war, but they were soon subdued, and their chief, Little Crow, was killed.

49. While the war was raging on sea and land during the year 1862, the National Government was devising measures for the suppression of the rebellion. Early in April, Congress passed an act providing for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. The bill received the signature of the President and became a law on the 16th of June. On the 20th of the same month (June, 1862), the President signed a bill passed by Congress for the prohibition of slavery in the Territories of the United States. Congress also authorized the President to proclaim the freedom of the slaves; and, on the 22d of September (1862), he issued a proclamation warning the insurgents that he would proclaim the emancipation of every slave in the revolting States within a hundred days, if they refused to lay down their arms and return to their allegiance within that period.

50. Never during the whole period of the Civil War did the cause of the Union appear more gloomy than at the close of 1862. The rebellion was as formidable as ever, and very little had been accomplished in the way of its suppression. There were about 700,000 National troops in the field, while the Confederate army was larger than at any previous or subsequent period.

51. As the Confederates paid no attention to the proclamation issued by the President on the 22d of September, 1862, he issued another proclamation on the 1st of January, 1863, declaring forever free all the slaves in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, excepting West Virginia and such portions of the rebellious States as were in the hands of the National troops at that time. It was evident that the time had arrived for this decisive step; and it received the unanimous approval of the supporters of the Administration, and destroyed the last hope of foreign aid of the insurgents.

52. After his unsuccessful attempt to take Vicksburg, at the close of 1862, Sherman was succeeded in his command by General John A. McClernand, who went up the Arkansas river, and, in conjunction with Admiral Porter, captured Arkansas Post, with its garrison of 5,000

Deings of Congress.

Gloomy Prospects.

Emancipation Proclamation.

Capture of Arkansas Post.

Confederate troops, after a severe engagement, on the 11th of January, 1863.

53. In Eastern North Carolina, during the spring of 1863, the National forces, under the command of General John G. Foster, repelled the assaults of the Confederates, under General D. H. Hill and others, and foiled their attempts to obtain the entire control of that region. **Operations in North Carolina.** Early in May, 1863, the Confederates, under Generals Longstreet, and D. H. Hill, were repulsed in an attempt to take by siege the town of Suffolk, in South-eastern Virginia, by 14,000 National troops under General Peck.

54. During the winter and spring of 1863, General Banks, with a National force, overran Louisiana, from New Orleans to the Red River, defeated the Confederates in a number of actions, and captured many prisoners, some artillery, and much public property. **Success of Banks in Louisiana.** Banks returned to New Orleans; and during the summer, he sent an expedition by water to Texas.

55. On the 27th of April, 1863, General Burnside was relieved of the command of the army of the Potomac and succeeded by General Joseph Hooker. Hooker crossed the Rappahannock river; and, on the 2d, 3d, and 4th of May, his army engaged in a severe battle with Lee's army at a place called Chancellorsville. **Battle of Chancellorsville.** In this battle the famous Confederate general, "Stonewall Jackson," lost his life. The result of the battle was that the National army was defeated, and compelled to retire across the Rappahannock on the 5th (May, 1863).

56. The defeat of the army of the Potomac in Virginia was fully atoned for by a series of brilliant victories gained by the National army under General Grant in Mississippi. **Grant's victories in Mississippi.** In the latter part of April (1863), Grant defeated the insurgents in two battles near Port Gibson. The Confederates were also defeated in the battle of Raymond, May 12; the battle of Jackson, May 14; the battle of Champion Hills, May 16; and the battle of Big Black River Bridge, May 17; after which Grant prepared to carry on the siege of Vicksburg with vigor.

57. After the battle of Chancellorsville, Lee's army began to march northward, for the purpose of carrying the war into the

**Invasion of
Maryland
and Penn-
sylvania.**

loyal states. Hooker followed with his army, on the right flank of the Confederates, in order to save Washington and Baltimore from capture. At length, on the 28th of June, General George Gordon Meade was appointed to the command of the army of the Potomac, Hooker having resigned.

58. Lee advanced into Pennsylvania, followed by Meade. At length, the two armies confronted each other at Gettysburg, where a sanguinary engagement occurred on the 1st, 2d, and 3d of July, 1863. The Confederates were thoroughly

**Battle of
Gettysburg.**

defeated, with the loss of about 30,000 men, while the loss of the National army was more than 20,000 men. General John F. Reynolds, of the National army, and General Barksdale, of the Confederate army, were killed. After the battle, the Confederate army made a precipitate flight toward Virginia, closely pursued by the victorious army under General Meade, and it was not long before both armies again found themselves south of the Potomac.

59. Late in May, the army under General Grant invested Vicksburg, which was garrisoned by a large Confederate army, under

**Siege and
capture of
Vicksburg.**

General John C. Pemberton. The siege was prosecuted with so much vigor that, on the 4th of July (1863), Pemberton surrendered his whole force, amounting to more than 30,000 men, and the city of Vicksburg, into the hands of Grant.

60. On the day that Vicksburgh yielded to the National arms (July 4, 1863), a Confederate force was repulsed in an attack upon the National troops under the command of General Prentiss, at Helena, Arkansas.

61. After his successes in South-western Louisiana, General Banks invested Port Hudson, on the Mississippi, above Baton Rouge. On the 8th of July (1863), Port Hudson,

**Fall of Port
Hudson.**

with its garrison of 5,000 Confederate troops under General Gardner, was surrendered to Banks; and thus the last obstruction to the navigation of the Mississippi river was overcome.

62. About the time of Lee's invasion of Pennsylvania, a large body of Confederate guerrillas, under General John Morgan, suddenly crossed the Ohio River into Indiana, and advanced east-

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ward into Ohio, plundering as they went. After **Morgan's raid into Indiana and Ohio.** many of the raiders had been killed or captured, Morgan surrendered with the remainder, numbering about 800 men, to General Shackleford, in Morgan County, Ohio.

63. During the spring and summer of 1863, the National forces were vigorously besieging Charleston, in South Carolina. An unsuccessful attempt was made, on the 7th of April (1863), by the National navy, under Admiral **Siege of Charleston.** Dupont, to take Fort Sumter. In July, a National land force, under General Q. A. Gillmore, landed on Morris Island, and commenced besieging the works which defended Charleston harbor. After a frightful bombardment of seven days, Fort Sumter was reported by Gillmore as being reduced to "a shapeless and harmless mass of ruins." It was not harmless, however, as it still bid defiance to the guns of the besieging forces. Fort Wagner was evacuated by its Confederate garrison in September (1861), after which it was taken possession of by the National troops. The siege of Charleston was continued for a year and a half longer.

64. On the 1st of September, 1863, Fort Smith in Western Arkansas, was captured by a National force under General Blunt. On the 10th of the same month (September, 1863), **Capture of Fort Smith.** General Frederic Steele, with National troops, completely broke the power of the insurgents in Arkansas by the capture of Little Rock, the capital of that State.

65. In the latter part of June, 1863, the great Army of the Cumberland, under General Rosecrans, began a decisive campaign in Tennessee. After a series of conflicts, the Confederate army under General Bragg was compelled to retreat to Chattanooga, in the South-Eastern part of that State. The insurgents erected strong fortifications at Chattanooga, but when Rosecrans approached, in August, the Confederate army evacuated the city, which was taken possession of by a portion of Rosecrans' army on the 9th of September. **The Army of the Cumberland.**

66. Rosecrans again pursued Bragg, who was now reinforced by General James Longstreet and his corps, from Lee's army, in Virginia. The Confederate army, thus strengthened, **Battle of Chickamauga.** suddenly attacked the pursuing army of Rosecrans at the Chickamauga creek, where a bloody battle was fought on the 19th and 20th of September, 1863. The insur-

gents were victorious; and the National army was obliged to fall back, and seek refuge behind the fortifications of Chattanooga.

67. In October, 1863, Lee's army drove the Army of the Potomac back upon Manassas, but was in turn compelled to retreat, after some skirmishing. On the 7th of

Skirmishes. November, a severe skirmish at Kelly's Ford resulted in the capture of 2,000 Confederates, by a portion of the National army, under Generals John Sedgewick and W. H. French.

68. After his defeat in the battle of Chickamauga, Rosecrans was in a perilous situation. General Grant, who had just been

Battle of Chattanooga. entrusted with the command of all the National armies in the West, east of the Mississippi, hastened to his relief. After being joined by Sherman from

Vicksburgh and Hooker from the army of the Potomac, Grant attacked Bragg's army at Chattanooga, on the 23d of November; and, after a sanguinary conflict of three days, known as "the battle of Chattanooga," in which the insurgents were driven from their strong positions on Orchard Knob by General Thomas (November 23), from Lookout Mountain by General Hooker, after a fierce struggle known as "the battle above the clouds" (November 24), and from Missionary Ridge, after the most obstinate resistance (November 25), the siege of Chattanooga was raised, and the National army gained a brilliant victory. Bragg's defeated and shattered army retreated into Georgia, and the whole of Tennessee fell into the possession of the National forces.

69. About the middle of November, 1863, General Burnside, with 5,000 National troops, was besieged in Knoxville, in East

Siege of Knoxville. Tennessee, by General Longstreet, who had left Bragg's army with his corps, for the purpose of expelling the National forces from that quarter. When

General Sherman came with National troops for the relief of Burnside's beleaguered force, Longstreet fled eastward, and rejoined Lee's army in Virginia.

70. The progress of the National arms during the year 1863 had been very great. Missouri, Arkansas, Kentucky, Tennessee,

Progress of the National Arms. large portions of Florida, Mississippi, and Louisiana, and the control of the Rio Grande and Mississippi Rivers, had been lost to the insurgents; and the

Rebellion was on its decline.

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71. On the 4th of March, 1863, the Thirty-seventh Congress closed its last session, after having adopted measures for the efficiency of the army. Steps were taken for the enlistment and organization of colored troops; and, on the 3d of March (1863), a conscription act became a law. In May, the President ordered a draft of 300,000 men. Much opposition was manifested against the draft, especially in the city of New-York, where a terrible riot of three days occurred (July 13, 14, and 15, 1863), in which one hundred lives were lost and property to the value of two million dollars was destroyed. On the 20th of June, 1863, West Virginia was admitted into the Union as a State, by authority of an act passed by Congress on the 31st of December, 1862.

**Deings of
Congress.**

72. The year 1864 opened with many bright and promising hopes for the National cause. The National armies were strong and well disciplined, while the finances of the Republic were in a good condition. The loyal people were more united in the support of the Administration and in the determination to prosecute the war until the suppression of the rebellion should be accomplished.

**Bright
Prospect.**

73. About the middle of January, 1864, a body of National cavalry, under General William W. Averill, destroyed thirty miles of the Virginia and Tennessee railway track west of Lynchburg. In the latter part of February, a bold exploit was performed by General Judson Kilpatrick, who with a small force of National cavalry, entered the outer defenses of Richmond.

**Averill's raid
in Virginia.**

74. On the 3d of February, 1864, General William T. Sherman, with a considerable National force, commenced a destructive invasion of Mississippi. Starting from Vicksburg, Sherman's force advanced eastward, almost to the borders of Alabama, seizing or destroying much property, and liberating about 10,000 slaves.

**Sherman's
invasion of
Mississippi.**

75. On the 5th of February, 1864, General Seymour, with a National force, left Port Royal, in South Carolina, and invaded North-eastern Florida. Seymour defeated the Confederates at Jacksonville, and moved westward; but, on the 20th (February, 1864), his army was defeated and almost ruined, in a bloody battle at Olustee, on the Florida

**Seymour's
invasion of
Florida.**

Central railroad. Seymour abandoned his project and returned to Jacksonville.

76. On the 10th of March, 1864, General Andrew J. Smith left Vicksburg with a heavy National force for the invasion of Louisiana. A fleet under Admiral Porter, and an army under General Banks from New Orleans, cooperated with Smith's expedition. Smith captured Fort de Russey from the Confederates under General Richard Taylor, on the 13th of March, and, continuing his advance toward Shreveport, was joined by Banks at Alexandria. The National troops were defeated by the Confederates at Sabine Cross-Roads, on the 8th of April, and were compelled to retreat toward New Orleans. On their retreat, they defeated the Confederates at Pleasant Hill, and at Cane River. Porter's fleet, which had gone to Shreveport, was enabled to return to New Orleans by damming up the river.

77. In March, 1864, a Confederate cavalry force under General Napoleon Bonaparte Forrest, made a destructive raid into Tennessee and Kentucky. Forrest captured Union City, Tennessee, on the 24th of March, and the next day some of his troops almost destroyed Paducah, in Kentucky, on the Ohio river. On the 12th of April, Forrest captured Fort Pillow, in Tennessee, on the Mississippi River, and caused most of the garrison, which was composed of negro troops, to be massacred after they had surrendered.

78. In February, 1864, General Grant was placed in chief command of the armies of the Republic, with the title of Lieutenant-General. He established his head-quarters in the field with the Army of the Potomac. On the 3d of May, he issued an order for the Army of the Potomac under General Meade, and three Western armies under General W. T. Sherman, in Northern Georgia, to commence operations against the Confederate armies opposed to them.

79. On the 5th of May, 1864, the Army of the Potomac, under the immediate command of General Meade, and by the direction of Lieutenant-General Grant, whose head-quarters were with that army, crossed the Rapid Anna, and attacked General Lee's army in the "Wilderness," in Orange County, Virginia, where a sanguinary

Red River expedition.

Forrest's raid in Tennessee and Kentucky.

Grant a Lieutenant-General.

Battle of the Wilderness.

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battle ensued, on the 5th, 6th, and 7th of May. (1864.) Lee retreated to Spottsylvania Court-House, where another series of bloody struggles followed; and, at the end of a week's conflict, the National army was successful, and Lee's army was in full retreat toward Richmond. In these battles Generals John Sedgewick and James Wadsworth, of the National army, were killed. Grant pursued Lee's retreating army, fought several bloody actions with the enemy, the most important of which was at Cold Harbor, cut-flanked Lee, and thus compelled him to fall back to the defenses of Richmond, in the early part of June.

80. Grant sent out cavalry expeditions in various directions to destroy railroads, and to cut off all communication with the Confederate capital. In the meantime, a large National force named "The Army of the James," which had **Cavalry raid.** been placed under the command of General Butler, had gone up the James river, from Fortress Monroe, and fortified Bermuda Hundred, on the south side of the river. Butler was repulsed in an attack upon Fort Darling, but he afterwards repulsed several attacks by the insurgents under Beauregard upon Bermuda Hundred.

81. Butler's movements enabled Grant to place the Army of the Potomac on the south side of the James river, and to lay siege to Petersburg, an important city on the Appomattox river, twenty miles south of Richmond. **Siege of Petersburg.** The Confederates had strongly fortified Petersburg, as they considered the defense of that town essential to the safety of Richmond. Lee with the greater part of his army took a position to defend Petersburg.

82. While the Army of the Potomac had been thus successful in Virginia, the Armies of the Cumberland, the Tennessee, and the Ohio, which had been united in Northern Georgia, and placed under the command of General W. **Sherman's successes in Georgia.** T. Sherman, were fully as victorious. At the beginning of May, 1864, Sherman compelled the Confederates, under General Joseph E. Johnston, to evacuate Dalton. For several months there was almost constant fighting between Sherman's and Johnson's armies. Johnston was always defeated and compelled to retreat. The most important of these battles were those of Resaca, Dallas, Allatoona Pass, and Kennesaw Mountain. In July, Johnston

was removed from the command of the Confederate army in Northern Georgia, and his place was supplied by General John B. Hood. Sherman defeated Hood in three great battles before Atlanta (July 20, 22, and 28, 1864), after which he laid siege to that important town and railway centre. In the battle fought on the 22d of July, General James B. McPherson, of the National army was killed.

83. While the great events just related were occurring in Virginia and in Georgia, events of minor importance were transpiring in other quarters. On the 10th of June, 1864, a

**Battle of
Guntown.**

National force in Northern Mississippi, under the command of General Sturgis, was defeated in the battle of Guntown, by a Confederate force under General Forrest, and compelled to retreat about seventy-five miles. Soon after this disaster, Sturgis was superseded in his command by General Andrew J. Smith, who soon defeated the Confederates and restored the supremacy of the National arms in that quarter of the Southern Confederacy.

84. After the beginning of the Civil War, several large vessels were built for the Confederates at Liverpool, in England, by

**Fight be-
tween the
Kearsarge
and the
Alabama.**

Laird, a ship-builder at that place, and a member of the British Parliament. One of these vessels, named *Alabama*, and manned chiefly by Englishmen, but bearing a Confederate flag, and commanded by Captain Raphael Semmes, was defeated and sunk, on the 15th of June, 1864, in the English Channel, near the French port of Cherbourg, by the *Kearsarge*, a National vessel, commanded by Captain John A. Winslow. The crew of the *Alabama* were saved by an English vessel and carried to England.

85. At the beginning of July, 1864, about 15,000 Confederate troops, under General Jubal Early, crossed the Potomac, from the

**Early's in-
vasion of
Maryland.**

Shenandoah Valley, into Maryland. They moved toward Baltimore, and, on the 9th (July, 1864), they defeated a few National troops, under General Lewis Wallace, on the Monocacy river, near Frederick. Soon afterward, the Confederates recrossed the Potomac into Virginia, carrying with them a large amount of plunder.

86. When Early's troops retired into Virginia, they were pursued by National troops, who defeated them at Winchester, on the

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20th of July. In the latter part of July, a small Confederate force crossed the Potomac, and marched northward to Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania. They reduced the greater part of that town to ashes, on the 30th (July, 1864), after which they again retired into Virginia, pursued by a National force.

**Battle at
Winchester.**

87. During the latter part of June, and throughout July and August, 1864, Grant prosecuted the siege of Petersburg with vigor. On the 30th of July, a mine which had been dug under one of the strongest of the Confederate works, was exploded with terrific effect; but the assault on Petersburg which immediately followed, was disastrously repulsed. In August, Grant seized the railroad leading from Petersburg to Weldon, in North Carolina. Four desperate attempts made by the insurgents to retake this important road were defeated. (August 19, 20, 21, and 22, 1864.)

**Explosion of
a mine at
Petersburg.**

88. During the latter part of July and throughout August, 1864, Sherman was vigorously besieging Atlanta, while the Confederate army which defended the place was gradually becoming weaker. Cavalry expeditions had cut the railways leading to Atlanta. At length, on the 2d of September (1864), Sherman defeated and severed Hood's army, compelled it to evacuate Atlanta, and immediately took possession of the city.

**Siege and
capture of
Atlanta.**

89. While the sieges of Petersburg and Atlanta were progressing, important events were occurring near Mobile. On the 5th of August, the National fleet, under Admiral Farragut, defeated the Confederate fleet at the entrance to Mobile bay, capturing many vessels. The Confederate admiral, Franklin Buchanan, lost a leg during the engagement. Farragut acted in conjunction with a National army under General Gordon Granger. Fort Gaines, after a furious assault, was captured by Farragut on the 8th of August. Farragut and Granger opened a heavy assault on Fort Morgan, which they compelled to surrender on the 23d of August (1864).

**Farragut's
victory in
Mobile Bay.**

90. On the 19th of September, 1864, the National army in the Shenandoah Valley, under command of General Philip H. Sheridan, gained a brilliant victory over the Confederates under Gen-

**Sheridan's
victories in
the Shenandoah Valley.**

eral Early, not far from Winchester. Sheridan gained another victory at Fisher's Hill, on the 22d (September, 1864). Early was driven farther up the valley. On the 19th of October, Sheridan almost annihilated Early's army, in the battle of Cedar Creek. After this, the valley was under the complete control of the National troops.

91. After the fall of Atlanta, Hood, with his Confederate army, moved northward, for the purpose of invading Tennessee and cutting off Sherman's communications with the loyal States. Sherman followed Hood and drove him into Alabama. At length, Sherman left General

**Hood's invasion of
Tennessee.**

George H. Thomas with a part of his army in Tennessee to watch Hood, and with the remainder he began his great march through Georgia. Hood invaded Tennessee with about 40,000 men. On his approach, Thomas retreated to Nashville, the capital of Tennessee. Hood pursued, fought an indecisive battle with a part of Thomas's army under General Schofield, at Franklin, on the 30th of November, and then laid siege to Nashville. On the 15th of December (1864), Thomas marched out of the city, and in a bloody battle he completely destroyed Hood's army. Nearly the whole of Hood's artillery was captured by the victorious National troops, and Hood, with a small remnant of his army, fled south into Alabama.

92. After having gone in pursuit of Hood, Sherman divided his army, retaining 50,000 men under his own command, and leaving the remainder under General Thomas to oppose Hood's army in Tennessee. On the 14th of November, Sherman finally abandoned Atlanta, and commenced a grand march through Georgia for the

**Sherman's
march
through
Georgia.**

Atlantic coast. No opposition was made to his progress. He captured Milledgeville, the capital of that State, on the 29th of November; and, on the 21st of December, he took military possession of Savannah, which, on his approach, had been evacuated by 15,000 Confederate troops, under General Hardee, who fled toward Charleston.

93. On the 31st of October, 1864, Nevada was admitted into the Union as a State. On the 8th of November, the people of the loyal States pronounced in favor of a vigorous prosecution of

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the war, by re-electing Abraham Lincoln President of the United States, over his opponent, General George Brinton McClellan. Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, was elected Vice-President.

Admission
of Nevada—
Re-election
of Lincoln.

94. In the early part of 1865, Congress passed an amendment of the National Constitution abolishing slavery forever within the limits of the Republic. Within a few months, three-fourths of the States had ratified the amendment.

Abolition of
slavery.

95. On the 15th of January, 1865, Fort Fisher, at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, in North Carolina, having been furiously bombarded for two days by 8,000 National troops under General Alfred H. Terry, assisted by Admiral Porter's fleet, was surrendered, with its garrison of 2,000 Confederate troops. Terry moved up the river, and, on the 22d of February, he captured Wilmington, the possession of which had long been desired, as it had been the only seaport in the power of the insurgents for a long time.

Capture of
Fort Fisher
and Wil-
mington.

96. About the middle of January, 1865, Sherman left Savannah and invaded South Carolina. He was soon joined by General John G. Foster with a strong force of National troops. Sherman marched northward, and entered Columbia, the capital of the State, on the 17th of February. This caused the Confederates to evacuate Charleston on the same day, and on the following day (February 18, 1865), that city was taken possession of by National colored troops.

Sherman's
march in
South Caro-
lina—Evac-
uation of
Charleston.

97. Sherman advanced into North Carolina, and defeated the insurgents, under Hardee and Johnston, at Averysboro', March 16th, and at Bentonville, March 19th. On the 22d of March (1865), Sherman was reinforced at Goldsboro', by the army under Terry from Wilmington, and that under Schofield from Newbern, while Johnston with his Confederate army retired to Raleigh, the capital of North Carolina, which was occupied by Sherman on the 13th of April.

Sherman's
invasion of
North Caro-
lina.

97. In the meantime, Sheridan had gone up the Shenandoah Valley, with a force of 10,000 cavalry; and, on the 2d of March, he almost annihilated the Confederates under Early, near Charlottesville. After destroying railways and communications, Sheridan joined the Army of the James under General Ord.

Sheridan's
movements.

99. During the entire autumn of 1864 and the ensuing winter, nothing of importance occurred at Petersburg, except a severe conflict at Hatcher's Run, in February, 1865. On the 25th of March, 1865, Fort Steadman was captured by the insurgents, but it was recaptured by the National troops on the same day. On the 29th of March (1865), a terrific struggle of three days began between the two great armies before Petersburg. After three days' fighting, Lee's army was compelled to evacuate Petersburg and Richmond, and flee westward toward Lynchburg. A hot pursuit on the part of the National army followed, and many of the Confederate troops were captured on the way. The retreat of Lee's army had been intercepted by Sheridan, and, at Deatonville, the Confederate General Ewell and his entire corps were made prisoners, after a sharp fight. At length, on the 9th of April, finding escape impossible, Lee surrendered what remained of his army, about 26,000 men, to General Grant, at Appomattox Court-House.

100. By the surrender of Lee's army, the Rebellion had received its death-blow. Richmond had been entered on the 3d of April, by colored troops under General Godfrey Weitzel, who received the surrender of the city from the mayor. "The President," "The Cabinet," and "The Congress" of the Confederacy had fled, thus putting an end to "The Confederate Government." On the 4th of April (1865), President Lincoln, who had been at the head-quarters of Grant for more than a week, made his appearance in Richmond, and, in the mansion of Jefferson Davis, the fugitive President of the Southern Confederacy, he publicly received many army officers and citizens.

101. Operations near Mobile had been suspended during the winter, but in March, 1865, they were resumed by General Canby and Rear-Admiral Thatcher; and after a defense of more than a month the city of Mobile and its defenses were surrendered to the National forces, on the 12th of April. General J. H. Wilson, with a large force of National cavalry, made a destructive raid through Western Georgia and Eastern Alabama; and General George Stoneman, at the head of another cavalry force, swept through South-western Virginia, to Salisbury, in North Carolina, destroying railways and bridges.

**Evacuation
of Petersburg
and Rich-
mond.**

**End of the
Confederate
Government.**

**Capture of
Mobile—Cav-
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102. While the American people were rejoicing, because of the suppression of the rebellion and the return of peace, they suddenly became a nation of mourners, when the news spread over the country that President Lincoln had been assassinated in a theatre in Washington. On

**Assassination
of President
Lincoln.**

the night of the 14th of April (Good Friday), 1865, John Wilkes Booth, who had at one time been an actor in that theatre, stole up behind the President, and shot him through the head. Mr. Lincoln died the next morning. The assassin, immediately after committing his tragical deed, leaped upon the stage, and brandishing a large knife, exclaimed, in the motto of Virginia, "Sic semper tyrannis!" "May this ever be the fate of tyrants!" and made his escape. He was afterwards found in a barn, in Virginia, and, refusing to surrender himself, he was shot by Sergeant Boston Corbett. Booth's accomplices in the assassination were tried, and, upon conviction, four were hanged, and the rest were imprisoned for life, with the exception of one, who was only imprisoned for six years.

CHAPTER CXXXI.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION (APRIL 15, 1865—MARCH 4, 1869)

1. AT about noon on the day that Mr. Lincoln died (April 15, 1865), Andrew Johnson, the Vice-President, was sworn in, as President of the United States, by Chief-Justice Chase.

**Andrew
Johnson**

Inaugurated.

2. On the 26th of April, 1865, the insurgent army in North Carolina, numbering then about 31,000 men, under the command of General Joseph E. Johnston, surrendered to General Sherman. The other Confederate armies and guerrilla bands soon afterwards laid down their arms; and, by the middle of May, all armed opposition to the National Government had ended; and the National armies were disbanded, and the Nation's defenders were returning to their homes.

**Surrender of
Johnston's
army—End of
the Rebellion.**

3. In the meantime, Jefferson Davis, the late so-called Confederate President, and the chief of the foiled conspirators, was

**Flight and
capture of
Jefferson
Davis.**

fleeing toward the sea-coast, with a large amount of specie, for the purpose of escaping from the country. He was captured near Irwinsville, Georgia, by a part of the 4th Michigan cavalry, under the command of Colonel B. D. Pritchard; and was brought to Fortress Monroe, where he was kept a close prisoner for two years, after which he was finally set at liberty. (May, 1867.)

4. Thus closed one of the most terrible civil wars ever known. A few restless and ambitious men, who had lost the power which they had wielded over the Nation for many years, had conspired against the life of the Republic, and inaugurated a gigantic rebellion, for the purpose of dismembering the Union, and establishing an independent empire, with slavery as its corner stone. In that fierce struggle perished the schemes of these conspirators, and the barbarous institution which they had desired to perpetuate. The Republic was purified and strengthened by the fiery ordeal through which it had passed.

Reconstruction.

5. On the assembling of Congress, in December, 1865, it became evident that a disagreement existed between that body and the President, respecting the restoration of the lately rebellious States to their former relations with the Union. The President demanded their immediate restoration, while Congress contended that they should first comply with certain conditions imposed upon them in the shape of a Constitutional amendment. In June, 1866, Tennessee, having ratified the proposed amendment, was restored to its former place in the Union.

7. In the summer of 1866, telegraphic communication between America and Europe was established by means of the Atlantic Telegraph Cable, which was laid from Valentia in Ireland, to Heart's Content, in Newfoundland. The accomplishment of this vast undertaking is owing to the exertions of Cyrus W. Field, of New York. The Queen of Great Britain immediately sent a congratulatory dispatch to the President of the United States, and received a reply from him on the same day.

7. The Thirty-ninth Congress, before the close of its last session, in March, 1867, passed over the President's veto, a bill

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placing the States lately in rebellion under the military authority of the Republic until their full restoration as States of the Union should be effected.

Military Reconstruction Bill.

8. During the last session of the Thirty-ninth Congress, in 1867, Nebraska was admitted into the Union as a State. In the spring of 1867, Russia sold all her territorial possessions in North America to the United States, for 7,200,000 dollars. The purchased territory was named Alaska.

Admission of Nebraska.

9. In the latter part of February, 1868, the National House of Representatives preferred articles of impeachment against President Johnson, for a violation of what was called the Tenure-of-Office Act, in an attempt to forcibly remove Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, from the Cabinet, and for other misdemeanors. On the 16th of May, 1868, the National Senate, sitting, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, as a High Court of Impeachment for the trial of the Chief Magistrate, acquitted the President of all the charges brought against him.

Impeachment of President Johnson.

10. In May, 1868, the Republican party, which had sustained the National Government in its prosecution of the war for the suppression of the rebellion, nominated General Ulysses Simpson Grant, of Illinois, for President of the United States, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The Democratic nominees were Horatio Seymour, of New York, for President, and Francis P. Blair, Jr., of Missouri, for Vice-President. On the 3d of November, General Grant and Mr. Colfax were elected by an overwhelming majority over the opposing candidates.

General Grant elected President.

CHAPTER CXXXII.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.—(Continued.)

GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION (MARCH 4, 1869—MARCH 4, 1877)

1. On the 4th of March, 1869, General Grant took the oath of office as eighteenth President of the United States. In May following, the railroad from Omaha, Nebraska, to Sacramento City, California, was completed. This great National highway across the continent to the Pacific, is known as the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific Railroads.

Inauguration of Grant.

2. All political distinctions on account of race or color in the United States, were finally removed by the ratification and adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment of the National Constitution. This amendment, which was declared adopted in March, 1870, secured the rights of citizenship to all races within the borders of the Republic; and several hundred thousand poor colored men, who ten years before were held as chattels, now enjoyed the glorious privileges of American citizens, and were placed on a political equality with their late masters.

3. On the 1st of June, 1871, the United States fleet under Admiral Rodgers, while in the waters of Corea, in Eastern Asia, was fired upon from the Corean forts, but repulsed the attack; and, on the 10th and 11th of the same month (June, 1871), the Americans defeated the Coreans, and captured their forts, after some spirited fighting.

4. The conduct of England, in allowing the construction, in her ports, and the escape therefrom of the *Alabama* and other Anglo-Confederate pirate-ships, had produced a bitter feeling in the United States, against the British Government. A treaty signed by Lord Clarendon on the part of Great Britain, and by Reverdy Johnson on the part of the United States, on the 15th of January, 1869, was almost unanimously rejected by the United States Senate; and the controversy threatened to end in a war between the two nations in the early part of General Grant's Administration.

5. In February, 1871, commissioners appointed by the American and British Governments met in Washington City, as "The Joint High Commission;" and, on the 10th of May, 1871, the commissioners agreed upon "the Treaty of Washington," which was speedily ratified by the two Governments. The Treaty of Washington provided for the settlement of the *Alabama* dispute by a Court of Arbitration consisting of five Arbitrators, to be appointed respectively by the President of the United States, the Queen of Great Britain, the Emperor of Brazil, the King of Italy, and the President of Switzerland.

6. When the Court of Arbitration met, at Geneva in Switzerland, in February, 1872, American claims for indirect or conse-

quential Arbitration, rejected to course with people. States with Arbitration for some consequence denied the arbitration based upon reasoning the direct damage.

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quential damages were presented ; but the British Arbitrator, Sir Alexander Cockburn, violently objected to the consideration of such claims, and his course was approved and sustained by the British Government and people. Intense excitement and bitter feeling against the United States was manifested in Great Britain, and it was feared that the Arbitration would signally fail. The United States Government for some time obstinately persisted in its preposterous claims for consequential damages, and the British Government as persistently denied the value of such claims ; but after several months' negotiation between the two Governments, the Tribunal of Arbitration, upon reassembling, in June, 1872, settled the question by rejecting the consideration of the claims of the United States for indirect damages.

7. The *Alabama* Claims Arbitration Tribunal at Geneva finally concluded its work on the 6th of September, 1872. The Court expressed in mild terms England's want of due diligence in preventing the escape of the Anglo-Confederate cruisers. The amount of damages awarded the United States by the Court was fifteen and one-half million dollars. Thus was settled amicably a dispute which had threatened to involve in war two nations kindred in race, language, institutions, and religion ;—presenting to the whole civilized world a most commendable spectacle.

8. A portion of the Republican party, known as Liberal Republicans, dissatisfied with General Grant's Administration, held a National Convention at Cincinnati, early in May, 1872, and nominated Horace Greeley, of New York, for President, and Governor Benjamin Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for Vice-President. Early in June, the regular Republican National Convention, at Philadelphia, renominated President Grant, with Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. Early in July, the Democrats, in their National Convention at Baltimore, instead of nominating a candidate from their own party, adopted the Liberal Republican nominations. On the 5th of November, President Grant was reelected by a majority far greater than that given in 1868 ; and, on the 29th of the same month, Mr. Greeley died, mourned by the whole American nation.

The " Indirect Claims " Controversy.

Decision of the Alabama Claims Arbitration Tribunal.

Re-election of President Grant.

9. Near the close of 1872, a serious domestic difficulty arose in Louisiana, concerning the election in that State. Both parties claimed to have carried the elections, and each endeavored to have its candidates installed. On the night of the 6th of December, 1872, in accordance with an order issued by Judge Durell, of the United States District Court of Louisiana, United States troops seized the State House in New Orleans, and held it for the Kellogg or Administration faction, which was supported by the National Administration; but the opposite faction refused to recognize William Pitt Kellogg as Governor of the State, and acknowledged John McEnery as chief magistrate of Louisiana; and for some time Louisiana had two governors and two legislatures. On the 5th of March, 1873, the partisans of Governor McEnery made an armed attack upon the Kellogg party in New Orleans, but the disturbance was quickly quelled by United States troops. On the 18th of April (1873), a bloody conflict took place at Colfax, in Grant parish, which resulted in the horrible massacre of 150 negroes who supported the Kellogg Government. On the 7th of May (1873,) an armed insurrection against the authority of Governor Kellogg broke out at St. Martinsville; but, after some spirited skirmishing, and upon the appearance of National troops, the insurgents submitted, and quiet was restored, but the great body of the white population of Louisiana was very restive under the authority of the Kellogg Government.

10. In November, 1872, the National Government attempted to remove the Modoc Indians, of Northern California, to a reservation in Southern Oregon. The Modocs, numbering no more than sixty warriors, headed by their principal sachem, Captain Jack, and by their other chiefs, Shack-Nasty Jim, Schonchin, Bogus Charlie, Boston Charlie, and Scar-faced Charlie, resisted, and defeated the United States troops sent to remove them. In January, 1873, Captain Jack again defeated the troops sent against him. On the 11th of April (Good Friday), 1873, General Canby and Commissioner Thomas were treacherously assassinated by Captain Jack and Boston Charlie, at a peace conference. This event produced the most intense indignation throughout the United States, and public sentiment was for a time strongly in favor of the extermina-

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tion of the whole tribe of the Modocs. General Schofield, who commanded the United States forces in the Pacific Department, sent troops after the Modocs, who fled to the Lava Beds, in Southern Oregon. During the months of April and May, 1873, the Modocs frequently repulsed the attacks of the United States troops; but finally, on the 1st of June (1873), Captain Jack surrendered with his bands, and the famous "Modoc War" ended. On the 3d of October, 1873, Captain Jack, and the other Modoc leaders who had murdered General Canby and Commissioner Thomas, were hanged, in accordance with the sentence of a court-martial; and the surviving Modocs were settled among other Indian tribes.

11. In September, 1873, a terrible financial crisis swept over the country. In that month, many of the leading banking houses of New York City failed; and the consequences of these failures were felt to the remotest borders of the Union. The banking houses of other large cities of the United States immediately failed. These failures affected every industrial and manufacturing interest in the land, and caused much distress among the laboring population in the large cities. These failures were caused in a great measure by too heavy investments in North Pacific Railroad bonds. The condition of the finances received the attention of the National Congress, which, in April, 1874, passed a bill to inflate the country with more paper money, but this bill was vetoed by the President, thus failing to become a law; but a bill providing for the more equal distribution of the paper currency among the different sections of the Union, and for a resumption of specie payments, received his signature, in June. (1874).

12. On the 31st of October, 1873, the steamer *Virginian*, flying the American flag, manned by Americans and Cubans, and commanded by Captain Fry, was seized by the Spanish war vessel *Tornado*, off the coast of Jamaica, on the ground that she was a filibustering vessel and was carrying war material to the Cuban insurgents; and, in the course of a few days, fifty-three of the crew and passengers were shot, by order of the Spanish military authorities at Santiago de Cuba. These wholesale executions produced the wildest excitement and the most intense indignation in the United States,

and the most angry and warlike feeling against Spain was manifested. Immense public meetings were held in New York and other large cities, which were addressed by noisy orators and blatant demagogues; and large offers of volunteers were made to the National Government. In the midst of this war fever, the Governments of the United States and Spain were busily engaged in the task of settling the matter by negotiation. The United States demanded reparation for the outrage upon the American flag. The Castelar Government in Spain finally acceded to the demands of the United States; and, on the 29th of November, 1873, a protocol was signed at Washington, by the American Secretary of State and the Spanish Minister at Washington, by which Spain was required to restore the *Virginus* and the survivors of her passengers and crew. On the 16th of December, 1873, the *Virginus* was delivered to the United States navy, by the Spanish naval authorities, at Bahia Honda, on the Cuban coast, west of Havana; and, on the 18th, the survivors of the *Virginus* crew and passengers were released at Santiago de Cuba, and on the 28th they arrived at New York, in the United States sloop of war *Junata*. The *Virginus*, which commenced leaking badly soon after her departure from Bahia Honda, was finally abandoned by her crew; and she sunk to the depths of the ocean, off the coast of North Carolina, on the 26th of December, 1873.

13. The State of Arkansas, as well as Louisiana, was beset with domestic troubles. The candidates for Governor in 1872 were Elisha Baxter and Joseph Brooks. On account of alleged frauds, the votes of several counties were thrown out, thus leaving Baxter a majority in the State, and he was accordingly inaugurated. In June, 1873, Brooks began proceedings, in the circuit court of Pulaski County, for the office of Governor, charging Baxter with being a usurper. On the 15th of April, 1874, the court decided in favor of Brooks's claims; and Baxter was ousted, and Brooks took possession of the Gubernatorial chair, while his adherents seized the State House. For several weeks, Little Rock resembled a vast camp, Brooks and Baxter each having collected a small army; and the greatest excitement prevailed in the city, Baxter appealed to the President of the United States for aid, but the National Chief Magistrate declined to interfere, except to preserve the peace; and United States

Civil War in
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troops proceeded to Little Rock to prevent bloodshed. On the 21st of April (1874), a slight conflict occurred between the contending factions in Little Rock, but it was soon terminated by the appearance of National troops. On the 30th of April, a party of Baxter's men were captured by Brooks' men near Little Rock; and, on the same day, a party of Baxter's men attacked a party of Brooks' men near Pine Bluff, killing and wounding thirty, and capturing the remainder. On the night of the 7th of May (1874), a party of Baxter's men on board the steamer *Sallie*, were attacked by Brooks' men, and captured. On the 9th, there was some fighting in Little Rock, but National troops soon restored order. On the 11th, there was a spirited skirmish at Baring Cross, near Little Rock, in which seven of Brooks' men were killed, but the fight was terminated by the United States troops. The State Legislature met at Baxter's call, and decided in favor of his claims; and, on the 15th of May, President Grant issued a proclamation recognizing Baxter and ordering Brooks to submit. On the 19th, Brooks' party surrendered the State House to Baxter. The opposing forces then dispersed, and quiet was restored.

14. Early in September, 1874, the Kellogg police in New Orleans seized several cases of arms belonging to private individuals. On the 14th (September, 1874), the citizens of New Orleans held a large mass meeting on Canal street, to protest against the seizure of arms as an outrage. The speakers at this meeting advised the people to overthrow the Kellogg Government by violence; and a committee of citizens requested Governor Kellogg to resign; but the Governor replied through a deputy, refusing to receive any communication from the committee. D. B. Penn, Lieutenant-Governor, with Governor McEnery, thereupon issued a proclamation to the people of Louisiana, calling upon them to arm and drive the usurper Kellogg from power, and also a proclamation to colored people of the State, assuring them that no harm was meant toward their race. The people of New Orleans responded with alacrity to the advice to arm; and, on the afternoon of the same day (September 14, 1874), armed men held undisputed possession of Canal street. About four o'clock, 500 Metropolitan police, with cavalry and artillery, appeared at the head of Canal street and General Longstreet, who commanded them, ordered the armed

citizens to disperse. The insurgents refusing to comply, a fight occurred between them and the Metropolitan police, and eighty men were killed and wounded on both sides. The Metropolitan broke at the first fire, and the citizens captured all their artillery. The citizens then built barricades on all the streets leading from Canal street. Most of the barricades were made with street railroad cars. Governor Kellogg, General Longstreet, and others, fled for refuge to the Custom House, where they were sheltered by United States troops. There was considerable firing in the streets of the city during the night, and New Orleans presented a decidedly warlike appearance. On the following morning, at seven o'clock (September 15, 1874), the State House was surrendered by the Kellogg party, to Lieutenant-Governor Penn's militia, which now numbered 10,000 men. All the State and city property police stations, arsenals, and police and fire-alarm telegraphs were in the possession of the McEnery party. At nine o'clock, the entire force of Metropolitan police and Kellogg's militia surrendered to Penn's militia. Lieutenant-Governor Penn took the reins of government, and prepared to install all those who had been voted for on the same ticket with McEnery in 1872. The barricades were torn down and the street cars resumed their trips. In response to an application from Governor Kellogg, President Grant issued a proclamation ordering the McEnery insurgents, to disperse and return to their homes within five days. On the 17th (September, 1874), the McEnery Government submitted to the President's orders. The State Capitol, and the other State buildings in New Orleans, were formally surrendered by Governor McEnery, to the United States military authorities at New Orleans. The Kellogg Administration was once more in possession of the State Government, and perfect quiet again prevailed.

15. At the general election held in November 1876, the two great political parties organized for a desperate contest. Hon. Rutherford B. Hayes, then governor of Ohio was nominated by the Republicans for President, and Hon. Samuel J. Tilden then governor of New York, was nominated for President by the Democrats. The canvassers waxed exceedingly hot; at several places in the South, troops were sent by President Grant, to prevent disturbances and ensure a fair vote. The result was very unsatisfactory, being

Election contest of 1876.

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nearly a tie. The face of the returns gave the Democrats a decisive victory, but scrutiny followed, rendering a change in the returns of Louisiana and Florida, and the great question as to which party shall triumph in inaugurating its President is yet in considerable doubt, (December 1876.)

16. In 1876, the nation completed the first century of its existence, and the Centennials of Revolutionary events were observed with appropriate ceremonies. But preparations for a celebration on a grand scale had already **Centennials** been going forward. On the 9th of March, 1870, Mr. Morrell introduced a bill in the National House of Representatives, which became the basis of future action in the matter. As soon as it was known that Congress was likely to hearken to the sentiment of the country, several of the leading cities laid claim to the honor of a celebration so memorable as this bade fair to be. Much jealousy was manifested by the claimants. A clangor concerning the merits of respective places was kept up in the newspapers. Congress wrangled and hesitated. But as discussion proceeded, the claims of Philadelphia, as being the scene of the promulgation of the Declaration of Independence, as possessing within her limits Independence Hall, and as offering the most majestic spaces and the best accommodations, began to have general recognition. A committee of the House of Representatives visited that city, with the view of selecting a site. Their judgment was favorable. On March 3d, 1871, a bill was passed providing "for a National Celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the Independence of the United States, by the holding of an International Exhibition of Arts, Manufactures and Products of the Soil and Mine, in the city of Philadelphia, in the year 1876." The bill also authorized the creation of a Centennial Commission, composed of one member from each State, with alternates, whose duty was to organize the Celebration. The jealousy respecting the selection of a site now nearly disappeared, but its effect was painfully manifest in the creative bill, which contained the parsimonious proviso that the Government should bear no part of the expense of the Celebration. But while the project was thus shorn of the truly national features at first designed for it, it was given fresh impetus by the organization of the Commission on March 4th, 1872.

17. A subsequent act of Congress (June 1st, 1872,) authorized the creation of a Centennial Board of Finance, with a capital stock not to exceed \$10,000,000, to be secured by subscriptions, each share of stock to be ten dollars.

Further Organization and Work.

This Board organized on May 10th, 1873, and immediately began the work of raising money and applying the same to the elaboration of plans and the erection of buildings. By July 3d, 1873, the plans were sufficiently developed to warrant a proclamation by the President of the United States, in accordance with the act of March 3d, 1871, in which he said, "I do hereby declare and proclaim that there will be held, at the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, an International Exhibition of Arts, Manufactures and products of the Soil and Mine, to be opened on the 19th of April, 1876 (afterwards changed to May 10th), and to be closed on the 19th October (afterwards changed to Nov. 10th), in the same year. By the same act, the President was requested, in the name of the United States, to extend to all foreign governments a respectful and cordial invitation to be represented and take part in the International Exhibition. Such invitation was extended, through the Department of State, on July 5th, 1873, and afterwards, on a better understanding of the relations of the Government to the Exhibition. The Commission invited the several States and Territories to form Advisory Boards or Committees, to assist in securing a complete representation of the industries of their respective districts. Subsequently Congress made an appropriation of \$1,500,000 to aid the enterprise. Immense buildings were erected covering sixty acres of ground, and costing over \$7,000,000.

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